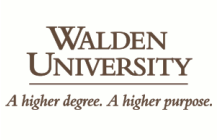

2015

Gendered Differences in Motivation for Entering the Teaching Field in North Carolina

Sharon Russell Wilkins Finkler
Walden University

Walden University

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

This is to certify that the doctoral study by

Sharon Russell Wilkins Finkler

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Lisa Reason, Committee Chairperson, Education Faculty
Dr. Dannett Babb, Committee Member, Education Faculty
Dr. Mary Batiuk, University Reviewer, Education Faculty

Chief Academic Officer

Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University

2015

Abstract

Gendered Differences in Motivation for Entering the Teaching Field in North Carolina

by

Sharon Russell Wilkins Finkler

MA, Gardner-Webb University, 1997

BS, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 1987

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Walden University

April 2015

Abstract

North Carolina faces a growing shortage of male teachers in K–12 classrooms. To help understand that problem, the purpose of this quantitative, cross-sectional, descriptive study was to explore the motivating factors that influence individuals to consider pursuing teaching careers and to determine whether these factors differ based on gender. Research questions used to guide the inquiry asked whether differences exist between males and females with regard to 13 motivational factors important for entry into the teaching profession and measured by the FIT-Choice Survey. Conceptually, Fishbein and Ajzen's expectancy value theory, which suggests that individuals make career choices based on expectations for personal success, framed the study. A targeted population was recruited of 314 male and female teachers in the southern feeder area of a school district in eastern North Carolina. In all, 223 teachers responded, providing 205 viable surveys. Of the completed surveys used for analysis, females submitted 170 and males submitted 35. Independent samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney U tests determined the significance of differences between the groups on each motivation factor. Results from data analysis revealed no significant differences in males and females on the 13 motivation factors with one exception: the factor measuring an individual's desire to work with children/adolescents. For that factor, women scored significantly higher than men did. Two other factors, intrinsic career value and time for family approached significance. The information obtained from this study may contribute to the body of literature related to gender and the desire to teach. Findings may increase diversity in the teaching field and strengthen teacher recruitment programs. By helping to create increased diversity in classrooms, this study will ultimately benefit all students, both boys and girls.

Gendered Differences in Motivation for Entering the Teaching Field in North Carolina

by

Sharon Russell Wilkins Finkler

MA, Gardner-Webb University, 1997

BS, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 1987

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Walden University

April 2015

Dedication

Soli Deo Gloria.

To God alone be the glory.

Acknowledgements

Since my first class at Walden University, Dr. Lisa Reason has been my mentor, my guide, and my encourager. I have weathered many significant life events since beginning my doctoral studies, and Dr. Reason has been a faithful teacher and supporter through it all. Without her steadfast leadership, I would have been in the tall grass. My appreciation for Dr. Reason is profound. Dr. Dannett Babb has been most helpful in her feedback and attention to detail. I offer her my thanks. Lastly, Dr. Mary Ellen Batiuk, the URR for my study, has immersed herself in my study with a detailed and meticulous eye. She has nudged, recommended, and pushed me to focus my thinking and writing to the best I can produce. I am most grateful for her help.

My parents, career educators themselves, have been the solid rock for me throughout my often tumultuous doctoral journey. Their Christian love and devotion to me and my goals have kept me afloat. For this, and so much more, I am forever grateful. My teaching roots run deep, drawing back from my grandmother's one room schoolhouse. I hear the voices of my ancestors whispering in my classroom even today: "Amo, amas, amat."

Finally, to the men in my life: my husband Andrew James Finkler, distinguished serviceman for the U.S. Army (retired) who is beginning his own graduate studies in ministry. Thank you for arriving just in time. I like you. A lot. Really.

And for my son, Walker Charles Wilkins, I present to you my doctoral study, the culmination of years of work and the capstone of my 28-year teaching career. This work is the second most important thing I have ever created. You, my precious son, are my greatest joy. Live long and prosper.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Section 1: Introduction to the Study

North Carolina has been facing a growing teacher shortage for some time, specifically experiencing declining numbers of male teachers in K–12 classrooms (Cornett & Gaines, 2002; Hines & Mathis, 2007). Despite efforts by school districts, colleges, and universities to attract more men into teaching positions, North Carolina continues to have a proportionally lower number of male teachers than females, with males comprising only 20% of the teaching population (Wood, 2012). School districts in the eastern part of North Carolina, including the school district selected for this study, mirror state and national trends in reporting low percentages of male classroom teachers (Greene, 2011). This problem is not unique to North Carolina nor to the United States. Several countries with decreasing numbers of men choosing teaching careers have launched national efforts to recruit more men into teaching, but these programs have fallen short of their goals (Skelton, 2009).

Research suggests that teachers, both male and female, are primarily driven by intrinsic motivations to teach, but extrinsic factors, notably low salaries and low prestige compared to other professions, present barriers to the choice of a teaching career; these factors may be especially important to men (Mullola et al., 2011). Many initiatives designed to recruit more men into teaching address this gender imbalance. Skelton (2009) reported that such programs merely attempt to pursue male candidates. Recruitment programs targeting men annoy some men, therefore making them counterproductive (Skelton, 2009). Although studies have investigated factors that attract individuals to the teaching profession, there is still an overall lack of empirical evidence regarding any differentiating factors that may exist between genders. Determining what factors attract

males into the profession and if those factors are unique to males must be the first step in addressing the shortage of male teachers in the United States, and specifically in the area selected for this study.

Background of the Problem

Developing a teaching force that is balanced in gender provides male and female students with opportunities to have strong positive role models (Skelton, 2009). The United States is one of several nations where a low and declining representation of men in the teaching profession, especially at the elementary school level, has elicited concern from policymakers as well as the education community (Wood, 2012). However, even where government officials have enacted policies to increase the numbers of men in the teaching force, these efforts have not produced the desired results (Skelton, 2009).

Researchers have proposed several explanations for the scarcity of men pursuing careers in education. Low salaries among K–12 teachers in comparison to other professions requiring the same level of education are routinely implicated as a major reason for the limited attraction of teaching for substantial numbers of men (Cushman, 2007; Johnson, 2008; Washington, 2009). Another common reason cited is the relative lack of status given to teaching as a profession (Johnson, 2008). In fact, these two reasons go together; low salaries decrease the prestige of being a teacher and the social value of a career in teaching (Skelton, 2009). The potential for low wages may have a particularly strong effect on men. Johnson (2008) explained this trend, highlighting men's " perception that they need to be a family's primary wage earner" (p. 5). Johnson added that a perceived lack of prestige for the teaching profession may be an obstacle for men who may otherwise seek esteem in careers such as medicine or law. At the same time,

issues of salary and prestige deter women as well as men from teaching (Skelton, 2009). Uniquely relevant to the recruitment of men, especially for teaching in the primary grades, is the deeply ingrained cultural notion in most Western societies that teaching is "women's work" (Drudy, 2008; Smith, 2004; Washington, 2009). Early childhood education is looked upon as an extension of mothering (Cushman, 2005; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005; Skelton, 2003, 2009). Rather than using words like *educating*, *teaching*, and *learning*, early childhood education is frequently framed in terms of *caring* and *nurturing*. Both these terms have emotionally charged and gender stereotyped connotations (Skelton, 2009).

Although many programs for recruiting male teachers are based on male role modeling, Johnson (2008) contended that "programs for more men in education should embrace goals of gender equity and social justice within the broader society" (p. 3). Indeed, Secretary of Education Arne Duncan recently reinforced this point as the Department of Education (DOE) recognized the Teachers Education Accreditation Council (TEAC) initiative, which is designed to increase the numbers, quality, and diversity of teachers in the nation's schools (Levine, 2006). The initiative is driven by principles of social justice and equity consistent with the DOE mission that all students across the United States should graduate from high school prepared for pursuing higher education as well as a career.

Reflecting the national trend, North Carolina has a decreasing number of men teaching in K–12 classrooms (Guarino, Santibanez, & Daley, 2006). School districts across the state recruit via college partnerships and job fairs, and many districts have implemented the North Carolina Teacher Cadet Program to attract high school students to

consider teaching. Such efforts have had negligible results when compared to the increasing number of classroom vacancies (Berry, 2009). Initiatives in North Carolina have had no effect on the teacher-gender imbalance (Cornett & Gaines, 2002; Hines & Mathis, 2007). Female classroom teachers continue to outnumber male counterparts, particularly in the lower grades (Men and Women Working in Various Industries, 2002). Nationwide, only 21% of teachers are men (National Education Association [NEA], 2001). At the elementary school level, this figure drops to roughly 15% (Aud, Fox, & KewalRamani, 2010). The National Association for the Education of Young Children found that the majority of men who are employed in elementary schools do not have direct contact with children; rather, they serve as administrators or in other positions (Nelson, 2002). NEA (2001) data indicated that conditions in the Southeast are more serious than elsewhere in the country: Only 14% of teachers are men. The school district selected for this study reported male teachers comprise 18% of the total teaching population, with even smaller numbers at some individual schools (Greene, 1011).

A review of the literature revealed no empirical studies of male teachers in North Carolina investigating specific factors influencing their choice to pursue K-12 teaching careers. Therefore, this study explored this gap in the literature to determine factors that influence males to enter the teaching profession. Such a study is an important foundation to address the serious gender imbalance in the teaching population in the selected study area.

Statement of Problem

North Carolina faces a growing teacher shortage, and specifically, a decreasing number of men in K–12 classrooms. Despite efforts by school districts, colleges, and

universities to attract more men into teaching positions, North Carolina continues to have a proportionally lower number of male teachers than females (Cornett & Gaines, 2002; Hines & Mathis, 2007). The school district selected for this study, as well as districts in the eastern region of North Carolina report similar patterns of low male classroom teachers (Greene, 2011). Furthermore, the literature shows that teacher recruitment initiatives targeting men have not produced the intended results in other settings, thus calling for a gender-integrated approach to recruitment (Skelton, 2009).

At the same time, men who choose teaching careers encounter unique challenges related to cultural gender stereotypes (Sargent, 2005). This stigma is exacerbated by issues related to salary, status, workload, students' behavior, and national policy mandates that impact perceptions of teaching for men and women alike (Skelton, 2009; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Knowing why men and women choose teaching and why teachers stay or leave the profession is essential for designing effective recruiting efforts. Before creating or enhancing any recruitment programs targeting males, school officials must first understand what factors may have led males who are currently employed as teachers into the profession, and if any of those factors are unique to males. However, empirical research has yet to identify factors that influence males to enter the teaching profession, specifically in North Carolina.

Nature of the Study

For this study I used a quantitative, cross-sectional descriptive design. I collected data through the use of a survey instrument (see Appendix A). I used a survey instrument that provided a means to investigate and objectively measure feelings, perceptions,

motives, beliefs, backgrounds, and plans of teacher respondents (as suggested by Fink, 2003).

The survey instrument was the FIT-Choice Scale developed by Watt and Richardson (2004). The FIT-Choice Scale is broken down into three subscales: influential factors, beliefs about teaching, and an individual's decision to become a teacher. For the current study, I used only the influential factors subscale. This scale is composed of 13 subscales: *ability, intrinsic career value, fallback career, job security, time for family, job transferability, "bludging" (choosing the easiest option), shape future of children/adolescents, enhance social equity, make social contribution, work with children/adolescents, prior teaching and learning experiences,* and *social influences.* The dependent variables for this study were average scores on each subscale. The independent variable was gender. I tested each hypothesis with an independent samples *t* test or Mann-Whitney U test.

The use of a survey such as the FIT-Choice Scale (Watt & Richardson, 2004) was ideal for collecting the data relevant to this study. The survey allowed quantification of the degree to which a specific factor motivated students to consider teaching and allowed relating of ratings to the gender of the individual respondent. The analysis sought to determine whether the motivation factors to become a teacher for males are similar to motivation factors to become a teacher for females. Thus, a quantitative cross-sectional descriptive research design was most appropriate.

Research Questions

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, I addressed and tested the following research questions and hypotheses:

RQ1: What difference exists between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H1_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H1$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ2: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H2_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H2$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ3: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H3_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become at teacher between males and females.

$H3$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ4: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H4_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*4: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ5: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H5_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*5: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *time for family to become a teacher between* males and females.

RQ6: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job transferability to become a teacher* between males and females?

$H6_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*6: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ7: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females?

$H7_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*7: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ8: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H8_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*8: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ9: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H9_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*9: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ10: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H10_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*10: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ11: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H11_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*11: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ12: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H12_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher males and females.

$H12$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ13: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H13_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H13$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ14: To what extent, if any, do motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males differ from motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females?

$H14_0$: There will be no significant difference between motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males and motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females.

$H14$: There will be a significant difference between motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males and motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females.

Section 3 presents a detailed discussion of the research design for this study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this cross-sectional descriptive study was to explore the motivating factors that influence individuals to consider pursuing teaching careers, and to determine whether these factors are differentiated based on gender. I used a Likert-type

quantitative survey to identify the primary motivating factors that influence individuals' decisions to enter the teaching profession. This study focused on teachers in the southern feeder area of a large school district in eastern North Carolina and evaluated whether there are significant differences between the factors that individuals report as having motivated them to choose teaching as a career of males and females. A clearer understanding of these motivating factors may enable school officials to create specific programs to encourage students to explore potential teaching careers. Moreover, specific motivating factors as reported by males and females must be considered to develop programs that are appropriate for both males and females attempting to identify a career pathway. Therefore, identification of relationships in the factors that males and females report as motivating them could be integrated into (or eliminated from) recruiting efforts designed to appeal to them.

Theoretical Framework

The FIT-Choice Scale is based on expectancy-value theory (Watt & Richardson, 2007). According to expectancy-value theorists, success expectancies and task valuation are key factors underpinning career and academic decisions. Socialization and other experiences related to the profession or discipline are also included in the model. These experiences are especially pertinent to the choice of a teaching career given the relative lack of exposure to male teachers for many students and the cultural stereotypes that portray teaching as "women's work" (Drudy, 2008; Smith, 2004; Washington, 2009).

Expectancy-value theory, as embodied in the FIT-Choice Scale, encompasses the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards associated with teaching (Watt & Richardson, 2007). Surveys of teachers consistently find strong intrinsic motivation for teaching, but

dissatisfaction (or less satisfaction) with its extrinsic rewards (Murnane & Papay, 2010; Skelton, 2009). The FIT-Choice Scale also reformulates utility value derived from expectancy-value theory as social utility value in light of empirical research reporting that candidates often aspire to teaching based on a powerful desire to make a meaningful contribution to the greater society (Watt & Richardson, 2007). The theoretical model adapted by Watt and Richardson (2007) provides an excellent solid framework for examining the factors that inspire males to pursue a teaching career. The gender imbalance in North Carolina's teaching force justifies the need for a study to examine factors that may influence individuals to become teachers.

Operational Definitions

The concepts and variables examined in this study can be defined as follows:

Ability: This refers to a participant's belief about his or her suitability to be a teacher (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Affirmative action: This refers to a positive action designed to eliminate the effects of past discrimination (Kravitz & Platania, 1993). Specifically, affirmative action emphasizes employing a particular group of people, whether through race, gender or culture (Carrell, Mann, & Tracey, 2006).

Bludging: This refers to the tendency to adopt the laziest approach or choosing an easy option (an Australian colloquialism; Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Cultural diversity: Cultural diversity refers to a collection of people with different group affiliations and cultural significance existing in one social system within an organization (Nkomo & Cox, 1996).

Demographic change: This term involves the increase and decrease of different ethnic, gender, age, and social group's populations as they affect the workforce (Fontanilla, 2003).

Diversity initiatives: Diversity initiatives refer to the efforts to make the most of the potential of employees for the sake of the organization (Carrell, Mann, & Tracey, 2006). Diversity initiatives fall into four categories: (a) recruitment efforts, (b) individual development efforts, (c) organization development, and (d) external outreach efforts (Hoobler & Nancy, 2004).

Diversity management: Diversity management can be categorized as recruitment efforts, education and training, career development, and mentoring programs to increase and promote an inclusive work environment (Roberson, 2006).

Enhance social equity: This refers to the ability of teachers to benefit the socially disadvantaged (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Equal Employment Opportunity: Federal, state, and local civil rights ordinances define and drive the definition of equal employment opportunity. The concept of equal employment opportunity is that all persons, regardless of race, sex, color, national origin, religion, age ancestry, disability, marital status, medical condition, or sexual orientation have equal opportunity for hire, promotion, and all terms and conditions of employment (Fontanilla, 2003).

Fallback career: This refers to the notion that teaching could be a second choice career for the participant (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Gender equity: Gender equity, also known as gender equality or sexual equality, is the goal of equality of the genders (Kardam, 2004). The goal of gender equality arises

from the notion of injustice inherent in gender inequality (Abu-Ghaida & Klasen, 2004). Gender equality is related to and is a basic element of human rights (Bunch, 1990).

Intrinsic career value: This is defined as a participant's notions about the importance of teaching and his/her interest in the career (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Job security: This refers to the steadiness and reliability of teaching as a profession (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Job transferability: This is defined as a career's facility in traveling or relocating from one location to another (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Make social contribution: This refers to providing a service to society through teaching (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Prior teaching and learning experience: This is defined as a participant's past work in teaching and learning environments (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Shape future of children/adolescents: This concept refers to the ability to influence young people in the classroom (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Social influences: These are defined as tendencies of participants to be influenced or subjected to the opinions of friends, family, or acquaintances (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Teacher education program: A teacher education program is the organization or department of a college or university designed to prepare students for careers in teaching or education-related areas. The North Carolina Department of Public Instruction provides a list of institutions of higher education with approved teacher education programs (Levine, 2006). Institutions of higher education must apply for approved status and

undergo regular evaluation standards in order to be listed as an approved teacher education program for North Carolina teacher certification (Levine, 2006).

Time for family: This concept is defined as the flexibility inherent in the teaching career to devote time to raising a family (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Work with children/adolescents: This refers to the nature of a job that provides opportunities of interest in a child- or adolescent-centered environment (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Workforce diversity: Workforce diversity encompasses group and situational identities of the organization's employees (i.e., gender, race, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, physical ability, age, family status, economic background and status, and geographical background and status; Hubbard, 2004).

Assumptions

I assumed that all participants responded honestly and to the best of their individual abilities. However, I did not assume that the responses would reflect the experiences of all teachers nationwide. Instead, I assumed that the samples considered in this study were able to represent similar populations. I also assumed that respondents were able to understand the items in the questionnaire. Moreover, the results of this study relied on the statistical analyses performed. Thus, the results of the analysis were the basis for conclusions drawn to address the research questions and the objectives of this study.

Scope, Limitations, and Delimitations

Creswell (2008) argued that defining limitations of a study determines inherent limitations, exceptions, reservations, and qualifications. These recognized limitations

identify potential weaknesses of a study (Creswell, 2008). Data collection for this study was limited to the participants who responded to and chose to be part of the study. A limitation existed because I, as the researcher, currently teach in North Carolina, and some of the respondents could have personal relationships with me. I specified in communications to the participants that this study was separate and apart from my role as a teacher. To avoid researcher bias, participants were anonymous to me as the researcher.

The scope of the study included male and female individuals who teach in the southern feeder area of a large school district in eastern North Carolina. The data from the study may be characteristic of like populations in other regions of the United States, even across the world. The international literature reveals remarkable similarities in the experiences of males in the teaching profession in spite of differences in educational systems, but the cross population generalizability of this study cannot necessarily be assumed (Skelton, 2009). Further, each school has a unique climate and culture, which could influence the careers of male teachers. This study revealed influences on teaching that may be relevant beyond this particular group of individuals, but some characteristics may be limited to the experiences of the participants in this study.

Significance of the Study

The information gained from this study may be useful in guiding teacher recruitment efforts for school districts in eastern North Carolina; at Future Teacher Associations (FTA) and other clubs, workshops, and classes for prospective teachers; and possibly at local 2-year and 4-year colleges and universities in North Carolina. Findings may increase diversity in the teaching force and strengthen teacher recruitment programs in eastern North Carolina. By helping to create increased diversity in classrooms, this

study will ultimately benefit all students, both boys and girls. To date, the North Carolina Teacher Cadet Program has not been successful in recruiting sufficient numbers of teachers for the state. Even programs designed with the aim of recruiting male teachers have fallen short of their goals (Skelton, 2009). According to Skelton (2009), while some men respond positively to initiatives designed to recruit male teachers, others find them irritating or offensive. Data from my study provided empirical evidence of a cross-sectional, descriptive examination of factors that influence both males and females to become teachers. This study may also serve as a springboard for future research in other locales by educators seeking to increase and diversify their teaching workforce.

Summary

In Section 1, I presented the introductory remarks concerning the importance of males in K–12 education and highlighted the significant and ongoing deficit of males in the teaching profession. In addition, I provided descriptive information pertaining to the study such as the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, and definitions of pertinent terms.

In Section 2, I present a review of the literature on existing concepts, theories, and studies that address the many problems facing school administrators when they attempt to realize gender equity in K–12 classrooms. A gap in the literature exists due to a relative lack of empirical studies focused on the perceptions of men who have chosen teaching as a career. As a result, efforts to recruit more men into teaching are frequently ineffective because they are not grounded in empirical evidence. In Section 3, I will discuss the foundational methodology designed to answer the research questions; Section 4 provides results of the study, and Section 5 offers conclusions and recommendations..

Section 2: Literature Review

Introduction

In this chapter, I present a comprehensive review of the literature relevant to factors that influence individual choice of a teaching career as well as the gender differences that may or may affect those choices. The chapter covers the search strategies used for the review; a brief overview of the demographics of teachers; barriers to men in teaching; justifications for the drive to recruit male teachers empirical evidence on gender and classroom teaching; the experiences, perceptions, and attitudes toward men in early childhood and elementary education; innovative recruiting programs; and conclusions.

I drew the literature presented in this review from the following EBSCO databases: Academic Search Premier, MasterFILE Premier, ERIC, PsycINFO, and PsycARTICLES. Keywords, used either individually or in conjunction, included: *teachers*, *teaching*, *profession*, *career*, *males*, *females*, *gender*, *role models*, *education*, *schools*, *elementary*, *primary*, *secondary*, *classroom*, *recruitment*, and *retention*.

Teaching Force Demographics

The United States is one of a number of countries, including Canada, England, Scotland, Ireland, Finland, the Netherlands, Australia, and New Zealand, where the diminishing numbers of men in teaching, especially in primary schools, has prompted concern from educators and policy makers (Cushman, 2007; Driessen, 2007; Drudy, 2008). According to the study of Fratt (as cited in Roulston & Misawa, 2011), in the United States, the proportion of male teachers in K–12 education declined over 40 years from 31% in 1961 (a figure that held steady for nearly 20 years) to a low of 21% in 2001. Men represent little more than 10% of U.S. elementary school teachers (Johnson, 2008).

The figure drops to less than 3% for the kindergarten and prekindergarten levels (Washington, 2009). Holsendolph (2007) concluded that Black men comprise only 2.4% of the teaching force, despite the growing diversity of students in public schools.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), out of 2.1 million elementary school teachers for the 2007–2008 academic year, 84% teaching public school and 87% teaching private school were women (Aud et al., 2010). These proportions are essentially unchanged from 1999–2000. Men are better represented at the secondary school level, but there has also been a decline in the proportion of men teaching in public secondary schools. Women now constitute 59% of the public secondary school teaching force, up from 55% in 1999–2000. Private secondary schools appear to attract the largest segment of men in teaching, with male representation at about 47% (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

The teaching force also remains overwhelmingly white. There was a slight increase in the proportion of Latina/o teachers between 2000 and 2008 (from 6% to 8% at the elementary school level and from 5% to 7% at the secondary level), but no discernible change in the proportion of Black teachers over the decade was noted (Aud et al., 2010). In fact, McCracken (2010) noted that out of 200,000 new teachers hired each year (80,000 to 120,000 in times of severe economic recession), only 4,500 were Black men. McCracken (2010) explicitly called this situation a crisis. Only 7% of the teachers in U.S. schools are Black, compared to 17% of the student enrollment. The slight increase in the proportion of Latino teachers to 7% falls far short of representing the 21% of the school population of Latino heritage (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Recruiting a diverse teaching force is only one part of the issue. Each year about 157,000 women and men leave the teaching profession (Carnoy, 2000) and over 232,000 teachers change schools, often leaving the low-income schools that are most in need of good teachers for more affluent, higher performing schools with more favorable working conditions. Teachers who leave the profession and teachers who change schools may comprise up to 12% of the nation's teaching force. Moreover, these figures exclude the teachers who leave the field due to retirement. Newly hired teachers (including newly certified teachers and teachers transferring to a new school) accounted for 14% of all teachers from 2007–2008 and, in terms of gender composition, represented the profile of the overall teaching workforce (Aud et al., 2010). The U.S. Department of Education (2008) predicted the impending retirements of millions of teachers as both an urgent need to recruit a new generation of teachers and an unparalleled opportunity to build a diverse, high-quality teaching work force of talented and committed young men and women.

Expectancy-Value Model

Psychologist Fishbein (1975) developed the theory of expectancy-value, stating that individuals develop attitudes based on assessments about values and beliefs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This theory strives to determine the mental calculations and assessments individuals undergo in attitude development.

The expectancy-value model (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) is comprised of three stages. First, an individual receives new information about an object, concept, or action. In the second stage, the individual assigns a value to each attribute of the belief. Finally, the individual creates an expectation based on a mental calculation of the beliefs and values. The three stages create attitudes in individuals (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

The work of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) has been used to develop other theories in the fields of marketing and advertising, education, child development, and organizational communication (Eklof, 2006). According to Watt and Richardson (2007) success expectancies and task valuation are key factors underpinning career and academic decisions. Socialization and other experiences related to the profession or discipline are also included in the model. These experiences are especially pertinent to the choice of a teaching career given the relative lack of exposure to male teachers by many students and the cultural stereotypes that portray teaching as "women's work" (Drudy, 2008; Smith, 2004; Washington, 2009).

Expectancy-value theory encompasses the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards associated with teaching (Watt & Richardson, 2007). Surveys of teachers consistently find strong intrinsic motivation for teaching, but dissatisfaction (or less satisfaction) with its extrinsic rewards (Murnane & Papay, 2010; Skelton, 2009). The FIT-Choice Scale also reformulates utility value derived from expectancy-value theory as social utility value in light of empirical research reporting that candidates often aspire to teaching based on a powerful desire to make a meaningful contribution to the greater society (Watt & Richardson, 2007). The theoretical model adapted by Watt and Richardson (2007) provides an excellent framework for examining the factors that inspire males to pursue a teaching career

Barriers to Attracting Men into Teaching

Researchers have proposed a number of explanations to explain the dearth of men pursuing careers in education. The low salary of K–12 teachers compared to other professions that require the same educational investment is routinely cited as a key reason

for the failure to attract substantial numbers of men (Cushman, 2007; Johnson, 2008; Washington, 2009). Another reason is the lack of status of teaching as a profession (Johnson, 2008). In fact, there is an ongoing debate as to whether teaching qualifies as a true profession (Drudy, 2008; Inman & Marlow, 2004). According to some scholars, the external control to which teachers have traditionally been subjected excludes teaching from the classic definition of a profession (Drudy, 2008). The recent waves of education reforms culminating in the mandates of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) have left many teachers feeling deprived of professional autonomy and initiative (Johnson, 2008), and have contributed to the exodus of many experienced teachers (Tye & O'Brien, 2002).

Issues of salary and status dissuade women as well as men from entering teaching. As more career options have become available, fewer women are choosing teaching careers (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). Although this trend is a contributor to a broader shortage of qualified teachers, conditions that influence women and men can only partially explain the massive gender imbalance. Rather, a key issue is that teaching is viewed in most Western societies as "women's work" (Drudy, 2008; Smith, 2004; Washington, 2009). The impact is most pronounced for early childhood education, where teaching is perceived as an extension of mothering (Cushman, 2005; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005; Skelton, 2003, 2009). Early childhood education is described as a gendered occupation, denoting the presence of at least two conditions: The incumbents are either 85% male or female and the work per se is generally "imbued with gendered meanings and defined in gendered terms" (Sargent, 2005, p. 251).

Markow and Cooper (2008) argued that teachers today feel far more respected in their profession than teachers did 25 years ago (Markow & Cooper, 2008). They are also

far more inclined to recommend teaching as a career, yet there are fewer students interested in teaching careers. Education reforms such as performance-based pay and residency programs for teachers analogous to medical residencies would raise both the salary and the prestige of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2008; Darling-Hammond & Haselkorn, 2009).

Another issue that pervades much of the literature is the looming specter of child abuse allegations. The narratives of men who teach young children are replete with descriptions of how they must be alert to any semblance of indiscretion, which adds to job stress and even prevents them from providing young children with the nurturing care expected of female teachers (Carrington, 2002; Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005). Most male teachers are told explicitly not to touch the children and are reprimanded if they do so even to comfort a crying child. Sargent (2004) described, "having to work with children under a cloud of suspicion" as the "single greatest impediment" to men working in early childhood education (p. 178).

In general, "token individuals are under continual scrutiny. In the case of men teaching young children, the paradox is that they must be diligent in avoiding behaviors that are a natural part of the job. The prospect of being perceived as a pedophile is emotionally damaging to men who are dedicated to teaching young children and undermines efforts to recruit young men into the field (Washington, 2009).

Justifications Driving Recruiting Efforts

Educators, administrators, and policy makers are aware that they face formidable challenges to altering the firmly entrenched gender landscape of teaching. Two major arguments dominate the efforts to attract more men to teaching. The first has been labeled

the “boy’s problem,” the “boy crisis,” or the “boy turn” (Driessen, 2007; Drudy, 2008; Johnson, 2008). Proponents of this perspective argue that gains made by girls in academic achievement have come at the expense of their male peers (Johnson, 2008). Although the gender gap in achievement is diminishing, data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP; Vanneman, Hamilton, Anderson, & Rahman, 2009) disclosed that girls continue to surpass boys in reading and writing in greater magnitudes than boys who outperform girls in mathematics and science. To “backlash proponents” against gains made by females in the wake of the feminist movement, this trend signifies that boys are now in a state of crisis (Vanneman et al., 2009).

The second argument driving the push for male teachers is that young boys need strong, positive role models (Johnson, 2008). According to this argument, being surrounded by female teachers at school and often returning to a home with an absent father makes it difficult for boys to develop a healthy masculine identity. Studies by Chmelynski (2006), Feistritzer (2005), Holsendolph (2007), Lynn, (2006), and Richard (2005) have found that many men, especially Black men, are drawn to teaching so that they can serve as role models and mentors for male students. Principals extol the positive impact of outstanding male teachers, often on students who had been underachievers. However, much of the literature in this area takes the form of case studies and anecdotal reports. There is compelling evidence that students benefit from excellent teachers and students who have traditionally been disadvantaged by the school system benefit most. Darling-Hammond (2008) has consistently made this point (see also Darling-Hammond & Haselkorn, 2009).

Challenges to Justifications for Pursuing Male Teachers

The outcry over an alleged "boy crisis" has many female teachers pointing out that there was no such public outrage when boys were outperforming girls (Francis et al., 2008). Female teachers feel frustrated and offended by implications that they lack sufficient competency to teach boys. Some scholars allege that female teachers are being used as scapegoats for flawed educational systems (Drudy, 2008). While there is documentation of higher dropout rates among boys and increasing incidence of disruptive behaviors, detailed analysis of the evidence does not support the idea that boys in the 21st century are academically disadvantaged as a result of having female teachers (Johnson, 2008).

The aptly named Alliance for Excellent Education posited explicitly that being taught by a high quality teacher overrides all other factors in improving students' academic performance (Francis et al., 2008). The impact of an excellent teacher is especially pronounced for underperforming and minority students. In fact, the vital importance of having high-quality teachers may be the one educational issue on which there is no dissent. The extent to which boys actually benefit from male role models in the classroom is more questionable (Bricheno & Thornton, 2007; Carrington, Tymms, & Merrell, 2008; Francis et al., 2008; Johnson, 2008).

According to Johnson (2008), advocates of the role model theory are generally unaware that that there is a lack of empirical support for their position. Furthermore, the notion of what constitutes a masculine role model is ambiguous. Frequently, the type of role model that parents desire embodies a stereotypical masculine image that runs counter

to how male teachers perceive themselves (Sargent, 2005). For example, one male third grade teacher in Sargent's (2005) study related the following:

> I've had so many parents, especially single moms, come in and tell me how happy they are that their son is going to have a male teacher. I asked one woman why that made her so happy and she told me she was becoming concerned because her son was getting into art and poetry a little too much. I love poetry and try to get all my students hooked on it. I didn't know what to say to her. (p. 254)

The teacher's female principal confirmed that what most of the mothers wanted for their sons was a man who would model "Solid, responsible male behavior," noting that, "Most of the moms who come in and ask about the male teachers make it clear that they want the teacher to be a traditional male" (Sargent, 2005, p. 255). In effect, the mothers' image of a male teacher was an authority figure that would maintain classroom discipline and show interest in sports but not creative arts. Both male and female teachers typically envision an effective male teacher as a model of healthy *androgyny*, as opposed to a conventional model of "healthy masculinity" (Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005).

The experience of a male early childhood educator in England highlights the paradoxes surrounding the situation of being a male teacher (Foster & Newman, 2005). The teacher recalled how the parents and school administrators were overjoyed to have a male teacher. In particular, one mother approached him, saying, "It would be great if my son was in your class; he really needs a male role model" (p. 348). However, it seems that the teacher was too effective a role model. Using the term *identity bruising* that Foster and Newman (2005) adopted to denote unanticipated "knock backs" experienced by male

teacher trainees and practicing teachers, he recounted an incident in which a student expressed the desire to be a teacher. Upon sharing this statement with the mother, the teacher was told, "Oh no, he's not—that's not a good enough job—and not paid enough" (Foster & Newman, 2005, p. 348).

Despite his disagreement with the mother's traditional conception of masculinity and his satisfaction with his chosen career, the teacher was nonetheless bruised by the insensitive comment; especially after the praise he had initially received (Foster & Newman, 2005). Many men and women report that others try to dissuade them from a career in teaching (Cushman, 2005; Richardson & Watt, 2006). Both men and women are told that they will face excessive demands and low pay, while men have to deal with the additional factor of being told that teaching is not a suitable career for a man.

An adjunct to the role model argument is the idea that matching teachers and students according to gender will boost academic achievement (Johnson, 2008). Dee's (2006) findings in support of that assumption using data from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS: 88) generated considerable attention. However, Dee's (2006) findings contrasted with an earlier study of gender effects using NELS data (Ehrenberg, Goldhaber, & Brewer, 1995). Most studies have found that matching teacher and student gender has negligible effects on academic performance (Carrington et al., 2008; Driessen, 2007; Marsh, Martin, & Cheng, 2008; Sokal, Katz, Chaszewski, & Wojcik, 2007; Sokal & Katz, 2008).

From a feminist perspective, Skelton (2009) analyzed the recent literature on the gender gap in the educational field in light of the national initiatives by Western nations to recruit more men into teaching. In countries like England (Skelton's home), Canada,

Finland, and New Zealand, there have been intensive government-sponsored teacher recruiting drives aimed at men, yet none have successfully altered the gender composition of the elementary school teaching force. Men (and women) who aspire to be teachers cannot escape the cultural influences that portray teaching young children as "women's work." However, one pivotal factor that both advocates and critics of gender-based teacher recruiting overlook is that men and women cite the same reasons for choosing a teaching career: enjoying working with children and wanting to "make a difference in children's lives" (p. 43).

Similarly, once they become teachers, men and women express the same concerns about their day-to-day teaching experiences and the impact of educational policies on their professional expertise and autonomy (Skelton, 2009). Irrespective of gender, teachers place the utmost importance on their relationships with their students, students' classroom behaviors, good collegial relationships among faculty, and effective leadership at their schools. In a parallel manner, teachers of both genders are troubled by educational policies that emphasize test performance, with "the subsequent implication that teachers cannot be trusted to do their jobs," disruptive classroom behaviors, and changing societal values that cause students to place undue emphasis on media figures and material wealth (p. 43). In short, studies that analyze teachers' perceptions have found that teachers are motivated to leave or stay in the teaching field for the same reasons reported by most surveys of teachers (Tye & O'Brien, 2002).

Crafting Effective Recruiting Efforts

Skelton (2009) noted that men have mixed feelings about gender-focused efforts to attract men to elementary school teaching. Although some men welcome such

initiatives, others find them annoying or offensive. To committed teachers, their first identity is their professional identity as teachers. Skelton (2009) offered three recommendations for structuring teacher recruitment efforts. First, recruitment efforts should be expanded rather than narrowed to target particular groups. Second, recruitment initiatives should deconstruct and market elementary education as a good prospective career. Third, issues related to social inequities in teaching and learning should be integrated into teacher education and ongoing professional development programs. The drive to recruit more male teachers is best framed in the principles of fairness, social justice, and the need for good teachers who can effectively serve all students (Johnson, 2008; Montecinos & Nielsen, 2004).

What the Evidence Says About Teaching and Gender

Academic Achievement

Driessen (2007) conducted a detailed analysis of characteristics of teachers and students in primary schools in the Netherlands and their interaction on the students' behavior and academic performance. Driessen prefaced the study with a survey undertaken on the part of the Dutch teachers' union in which nearly three quarters of primary school teachers expressed the view that feminization was a problem in primary schools. Broken down by gender, 55% of the men considered "feminization to be a threat to the quality of education," a view shared by 40% of the women (p. 185). Roughly two thirds of the teachers felt that feminization was damaging to the socioemotional development of boys "as boys clearly need—in their opinion—male role models" (p. 189).

Despite these perceptions, Driessen's (2007) analysis of 5,181 eighth grade students, 251 teachers, and 163 schools revealed no significant influence of teachers' gender on student achievement. The data were drawn from the Primary Education (PRIMA) cohort study, a nationally representative study of education in the Netherlands analogous to the NELS in the United States (Driessen, 2007). The influence of the teachers' gender on the students' classroom performance was first determined via one-way analyses of variance, which were followed by two-way analyses of variance to examine for interaction effects of the teachers' gender with the three student attributes of gender, ethnicity, and social status.

The analysis revealed no significant differences in the language or mathematics performance of girls and boys in relation to the gender of the teacher (Driessen, 2007). Girls showed evidence of better social behavior and work attitudes, although these differences were minimal. Throughout all the different analyses, there were no signs of any significant impact of the teachers' gender on the attitudes, behavior, or the academic achievement of the students. The gender effect (or lack thereof) was stable for the total number of male teachers the students had over the course of their primary school years, the grade level in which the students had male teachers, and the gender of the students' teacher in Grade 8. Furthermore, there were no significant differences according to the students' gender, ethnicity, or socioeconomic status (SES). The overriding conclusion was that there was no evidence to support the assertion that the predominance of female teachers had a detrimental effect on students regardless of their demographic profile (Driessen, 2007). In short, Driessen found, "More men at the front of the class does not

lead to better achievement and/or more favourable attitudes and behaviour on the part of boys or—for that matter—girls" (p. 199).

Carrington et al. (2008) utilized data from the Performance Indicators in Primary Schools (PIPS) Project, covering sixth grade classes in England, to investigate the interaction of teacher and student gender on student performance. The specific purpose was to discern whether students performed better in a classroom with a teacher of the same gender. The data encompassed 8,978 11-year-old students from 413 separate classes: 300 taught by female teachers and 113 taught by male teachers. At the time of the study, the students had been with the teacher for four months. Multilevel modeling was used for the analysis, which covered the subject areas of reading, mathematics, and science.

The analysis disclosed no evidence that matching teachers and students by gender had any impact on the academic performance of boys or girls (Carrington et al., 2008). In fact, rather than supporting the assertion that boys would do better with a male teacher, the results indicated that both boys and girls with female teachers had more favorable attitudes toward school. In terms of attitudes toward school, the implication was that "women teachers seem to bring out the best in both sexes" (p. 321). Carrington et al. (2008) acknowledged that their study focused only on sixth year students, and therefore their findings did not rule out that having a teacher of the same gender might be more beneficial for younger students. However, Driessen (2007) found no effect for the interplay of the teachers' and students' gender at any grade level.

Dee's (2006) analysis of NELS: 88 data is notable for the conclusion that the teacher's gender affected the academic performance of boys and girls. The analysis

included the students' achievement on standardized tests, the teachers' perceptions of the students' in their class, and the students' perceptions of the subject taught by specific teachers. The study was limited to data from the first year of NELS, which encompassed 24,599 eighth grade students and two teachers of each student. Dee (2006) regarded NELS as having a wealth of information for researchers exploring gender dynamics because it includes data from two different teachers across a range of academic subjects.

According to Dee's (2006) results, having a female teacher in English, science, and social studies boosted the achievement of girls by 4% of a standard deviation and lowered the achievement of boys by about the same degree, resulting in a gender gap of 8% of a standard deviation. Dee (2006) found this effect particularly striking if the effect occurs in a single year with the same teacher. At the same time, he acknowledged that the data did not cover the gender of the students' teachers in earlier grades. For girls, the most marked impact of having a teacher of the same gender was in social studies, whereas for boys the major effect was in science.

Further analysis revealed how classroom dynamics might influence the results Dee (2006) observed for the interaction of teacher and student gender. First, female teachers were more likely to view male students as disruptive, and less inclined to perceive girls as displaying problems with either behavior or attention. Another effect was that girls were more prone to say that they did not look forward to a particular subject or view it as potentially useful, or were apprehensive of asking questions when the teacher was a man. This effect was most pronounced for science. Boys also displayed less positive attitudes toward a subject taught by a woman; in particular, they were least inclined to look forward to history with a female teacher. Dee (2006) found the boys'

attitudes to be relatively stable across subjects, albeit less pronounced. However, he acknowledged that, analyzed separately, the effects were not statistically significant.

In mathematics, the analysis indicated that girls and boys who had a female teacher performed 7% and 8% of a standard deviation lower, respectively, than those taught by a man (Dee, 2006). However, further analysis disclosed that the pattern resulted from the practice of assigning weaker mathematics students to female teachers. The implicit bias affirms the pervasiveness of gender stereotypes surrounding the competence of female teachers (Drudy, 2008).

Based on his findings, Dee (2006) estimated that if half the Grade 6, 7, and 8 English teachers were male, and if they had additive effects on performance, the gender gap in reading achievement would shrink by roughly one third by middle school graduation. However, that assumption remains speculative, especially in light of the overall body of research. Dee's (2006) findings contrasted with the early study by Ehrenberg et al. (1995), who used NELS: 88 data to investigate the effects of teachers' race and ethnicity as well as gender, on students' academic performance. Ehrenberg et al. (1995) found that the teachers' demographic profiles had negligible effects on students' learning. However, there were some intriguing patterns.

One interesting effect was that having a Black male teacher rather than a White male teacher resulted in higher scores in history for Black male students and White male and female students, but lower reading scores for Latino males (Ehrenberg et al., 1995). Chmelynski (2006), Holsendolph (2007), and Richard (2005) concluded in their studies that Black teachers emerging from programs such as Call Me MISTER use culturally relevant strategies to make history more interesting for their students. Meanwhile, White

female teachers assessed White female students more favorably than their male counterparts. It is important to note that the NELS: 88 data analysis did not address the pedagogy utilized by the teachers (Ehrenberg et al., 1995). Overall, however, there was no evidence that matching or not matching students and teachers demographically had any discernible impact on learning.

Motivation

Marsh et al. (2008) used hierarchal linear modeling to investigate the interaction of students' gender, teachers' gender, classroom climate, academic subject, and students' level of motivation. The main question driving the research was whether girls would be more motivated by female teachers and boys more motivated by male teachers and what role classroom climate might play in the effect on performance in English, science, and mathematics using the Motivation and Engagement Scale—High School (MES-HS). The MES-HS encompasses three cognitive and three behavioral adaptive motivation scales. Adaptive cognitions include self-efficacy, mastery, orientation, and valuing, and adaptive behaviors refer to planning, persistence, and task management. Maladaptive cognitions refer to anxiety, failure avoidance, and uncertain control, and self-handicapping and disengagement represent the maladaptive behaviors. For a more comprehensive analysis, Marsh et al. (2008) also included affective dimensions of learning. Each of the motivational and affective dimensions was matched with an item capturing the student's appraisals of the classroom climate.

Marsh et al. (2008) analyzed according to three hypotheses: gender-stereotypic, gender intensification, and matching student and teacher gender. The first hypothesis suggested that students would perform better in gender-stereotyped subjects, specifically

boys in science and mathematics and girls in English. According to the second hypothesis, these effects would intensify with age, and according to the third, the students should perform better in classrooms with teachers of the same gender. Support for most of these assumptions was essentially negligible. The most pronounced gender difference was that girls were typically more motivated than boys, an effect that extended to science and mathematics as well as English, and was no different for older or younger girls.

Conversely, boys were substantially less anxious than girls, and this effect held across grade level and academic subject (Marsh et al., 2008). There were no gender differences on the other maladaptive aspects of motivation. In terms of the affective outcomes, boys showed greater persistence, while girls were more involved in learning, enjoyed learning more, and had better relationships with their teachers. The teacher's gender had no significant effect on any of the measures assessed by the study. In fact, in contrast to the assumption that boys would fare better with male teachers, boys as well as girls reported having better relationships with female teachers.

There were some small but significant gender differences in perceptions of classroom climate (Marsh et al., 2008). There was evidence that girls felt more anxiety and disengagement in mathematics, reflecting prevailing stereotypes. Overall, mathematics and science elicited more anxiety than English, and were more pronounced in the upper grade level. Girls also viewed the classroom management climate as strong in science and mathematics. In the overall analysis, however, boys and girls had largely comparable perceptions of their classroom environments. An interesting finding was that the range of motivational profiles in students had a greater impact on the classroom climate than the teacher.

The composite picture was that the results supported the gender similarities hypothesis (Marsh et al., 2008). The gender differences were small, but there were numerous individual differences in motivation. As a result, the motivational composition of the students influenced the classroom climate. Marsh et al. (2008) did not downplay the teacher's role in motivation. In fact, their findings support the prevailing belief that teachers have a marked influence on the engagement and motivation of their students. The authors recommended that teachers adopt specific strategies to motivate students and noted that professional development activities can help teachers build a repertoire of motivational techniques. Darling-Hammond (2008) repeated this endorsement and consistently emphasized the importance of professional development in cultivating excellent teachers (Darling-Hammond & Haselkorn, 2009).

Reading Performance

Sokal, Katz, Chaszewski, and Wojcik (2007) conducted a series of studies exploring the effects of male reading teachers on the reading progress of boys who struggled with reading (Sokal et al., 2007; Sokal & Katz, 2008). Each of the three studies used Paired Reading, developed by the Northern Alberta Reading Specialists' Council. The tutorial combined duet reading in which the student and tutor read simultaneously with solo reading, which the student accomplished independently. The program was structured so that the student had a substantial degree of control. The books were selected on evidence that they would appeal to boys, and over the course of the sessions the boys asked for books on particular topics or from a particular series. In order to optimize interest, the boys were presented with a number of books and then selected the one they wanted to read at each session.

Sokal et al. (2007) stated that the pilot study involved 18 first and second grade boys from an economically disadvantaged Winnipeg school with a predominately Aboriginal school population. Gender schema provided the framework for all three studies. Gender schematicity denotes "an individual's inclination to use gender as a salient schema for interpreting social information" (p. 111). According to Sokal et al. (2007), high gender schematicity is a consequence of "children's exposure to and internalization of environments where the importance of gender classification is stressed," which characterizes the experiences of boys more than girls (p. 111). Boys with minimal exposure to male role models for reading may come to view reading as a "feminine" activity. However, it is not the exposure to role models, per se, but rather the extent they are gender schematic that influences whether or not they like reading. Boys who are low in gender schematicity may view reading as feminine, but still enjoy it, while boys who are high in gender schematicity who perceive reading as feminine are more inclined to dislike reading.

Sokal et al. (2007) theorized that if gender schematicity is a factor in some boys' motivation for reading, the presence of male teachers and books that appeal to their personal interests could alter that perception. Sokal et al. (2007) emphasized the term "some boys" because the majority of boys are not struggling readers or disinterested in reading. For boys (or girls) who have difficulty with reading, it is important to target the most effective intervention strategy, and a male teacher might prove advantageous. The intervention took place over 22 weeks. Sokal et al. (2007) added that there were no differences in reading progress based on socioeconomic status (SES), possibly because most of the boys came from similar low-income backgrounds. However, participants

whose mothers were more educated showed more positive perceptions of themselves as readers and had more favorable attitudes toward reading over the course of the intervention.

As they became more proficient readers, the boys also became more comfortable with reading, and the reading performance of all the boys increased significantly. The overall gain was 1.2 grades; for some participants, the reading gains were equivalent to four grades. Sokal et al. (2007) found the magnitude of the changes especially impressive given that these students had many factors that placed them at risk, and the tutors were student research assistants rather than specialist teachers. The only aspects of reading that did not increase were the boys' attitudes toward recreational or academic reading. However, these were relatively favorable from the beginning; thus, there might have been a ceiling effect.

Sokal et al. (2007) attributed the positive outcomes to the effort and energy of the tutors, who went beyond the requirements of the program to create a motivating and encouraging learning environment. However, despite the rationale for the study, the gender of the tutor had no effect on any of the outcome measures. Their conclusion appears throughout the literature: "Good teaching is good teaching, regardless of the teacher's sex" (p. 124).

The subsequent study was undertaken with 175 third and fourth grade boys with reading difficulties (Sokal et al., 2007). To assess their perceptions of reading, the researchers utilized a Q-sort, whereby children are shown pictures portraying nine activities and are asked to classify them according to whether the activities are usually done by boys, by girls, or by both boys and girls. Only 9% of the boys considered reading

a feminine activity. Sokal et al. (2007) found this intriguing given that in a prior study with second grade boys with typical reading skills, 24% labeled reading a feminine activity. The difference in grade, and hence developmental stage, might be a reason, though that is speculative. The overwhelming majority of the boys (86%) saw reading as gender neutral.

The Paired Reading intervention was carried out with research assistants who came to the children's school for 30-minute sessions held weekly for 10 weeks (Sokal et al., 2007). The findings paralleled those of the earlier study by Sokal et al. (2007) with younger boys in that the gender of the tutor did not have an influence on the children's reading performance (Sokal et al., 2007). At the same time, the boys who worked with a female tutor developed more positive self-concepts as readers. A possible explanation is that the female tutors offered more praise and encouragement. Sokal et al. (2007) noted that the positive effect was uniform across individual female tutors. In contrast, there were differences in the attitudes and perceptions of boys who worked with different male tutors. Some of the boys who worked with male tutors saw reading as less feminine over the course of the study, and were more positive regarding the social feedback of their reading skills. Overall, the findings showed highly individual responses to male and female teachers, and male teachers are not the key to poor reading performance in boys.

Sokal and Katz (2008) included the use of technology in their subsequent exploration of the effects of male tutors on third and fourth grade boys with reading difficulties. The researchers used the same assessments as in the earlier study of third and fourth graders, but extended the intervention to 22 weeks (Sokal et al., 2007; Sokal & Katz, 2008). The results showed no advantage on reading performance for either a male

tutor or the use of the computer (Sokal & Katz, 2008). A somewhat higher proportion of boys regarded reading as a feminine activity: 13% compared to 9% in the prior study (Sokal et al., 2007). However, this percentage is still small. There was evidence that the boys who worked with a computer and had a male tutor developed a less feminine view of reading, but the effect did not translate into superior gains in reading performance or in their self-perceptions as readers (Sokal & Katz, 2008).

According to the researchers, their findings highlighted the heterogeneity of boys with reading difficulties (Sokal et al., 2007; Sokal & Katz, 2008). Some boys may benefit from having a male teacher, but the overarching conclusion is that having a male teacher will not resolve reading problems in boys. Although focused on different grade levels, these findings call into question Dee's (2006) projection that male middle school English teachers would neutralize some of the gap in reading performance between girls and boys.

Students' and Teachers' Perceptions

In the wake of U.K. policy initiatives to recruit more men into teaching, Francis et al. (2008) explored teachers' and students' perceptions of matching students and teachers by gender. The project included 51 third year classes from primary schools in London and North East England. Of those classes, a male teacher taught 25 and a female teacher taught 26. A total of 153 boys and 154 girls participated in the study, and researchers used surveys, observations, and semi-structured teacher interviews in the course of a single day.

Two-thirds of the students said it made no difference whether their teacher was a man or a woman, while slightly more than one-quarter felt the teacher's gender did make

a difference (Francis et al., 2008). Francis et al. (2008) construed this as "an extremely clear finding that pupils do not generally see teacher gender as important or relevant" (p. 24). They emphasized that the students were asked to explain their answers for clarity and the overwhelming theme was that the male and female teachers are "the same" (p. 24). The students' narratives were replete with references to there being "teachers" who "both teach the same thing" and "have the same education (p. 24-25).

Boys were marginally more inclined to say that the teacher's gender made a difference (Francis et al., 2008). Analysis of the responses of students who felt that the teacher's gender did make a difference revealed inconsistencies in their reasons. For example, male teachers or female teachers might be viewed as nicer or louder. In general, the responses of the students who gave explanations for their preferences tended to reflect gender stereotypes. However, only a miniscule proportion of students expressed these views. Francis et al. (2008) found it intriguing that out of 307 students, only one boy asserted that there was an advantage in matching students by gender: "Well I think sometimes man teachers, cos if you're a boy...I think man teachers understand a bit more about you because they're a boy as well" (p. 26).

Fifteen percent of the students thought learning would be enhanced with a teacher of the other gender, and many were boys who expressed a preference for a female teacher (Francis et al., 2008). There was no definitive pattern as to why the students preferred a male or female teacher. Some responses clearly reflected gender-stereotyped assumptions, while others seemed to arise from the students' own experiences with male or female teachers. More than half of the students (58%) felt that their teachers did not treat male or female students differently, but rather were fair and equitable. About one-

quarter of the students felt that teachers did display favoritism toward students of the teacher's own gender. Francis et al. (2008) pointed out that of the few students who commented on the effects of matching teacher and student gender, "many expressed concern and resentment at what they saw as gender injustices, rather than celebrating the benefits of such 'matching' outcomes" (p. 28).

When asked their opinions of why policy makers were claiming that matching teacher and student gender is an important issue, the overwhelming majority related the claims to cries of "boys' underachievement" and to having role models at school (Francis et al., 2008, p. 28). Several teachers mentioned popular assumptions that boys would relate better to men and male teachers would be better at managing boys' classroom behavior. However, many of the teachers rejected those arguments and were cynical about the reasons of policy makers for endorsing them; 26 teachers disagreed that male teachers would be beneficial to boys, and the rest were divided between those who agreed and those who seemed ambivalent. Notably, men were somewhat more likely to concur with the idea of gender matching.

The overarching theme among the teachers who disagreed was that the quality of the teacher was the key factor in classroom management and interacting with students (Francis et al., 2008). One male teacher was quite articulate in stating that there was no theoretical basis to the argument, and stated that if men were to be role models, it was important to decide what type of role models students should have. In fact, pointing out that the popular media is replete with role models for sexist behavior, he stated, "What you need is you need more males who have a feminist output, if you want role models" (Francis et al., 2008, p. 29). A female teacher, who cautioned that male teachers might

actually bolster gender stereotypes, reinforced his position. Her assertion was supported by other research as well (Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Montecinos & Nielsen, 2004; Sargent, 2004, 2005).

Reflecting Drudy's (2008) contention that female teachers are being held as scapegoats for underperforming boys, a number of women expressed anger with what they saw as the "unsaid" meaning of the policy that female teachers were incapable of engaging boys in learning (Francis et al., 2008, p. 12). Both female and male teachers commented that government teacher recruitment campaigns, especially those offering financial incentives, might encourage candidates who were neither suited nor committed to teaching.

Of the 13 teachers who endorsed the concept of gender matching, the overriding theme was that boys needed male role models to support and encourage them in learning and academic achievement (Francis et al., 2008). For example, a female teacher commented, "Yeah, I think maybe boys, there are some boys who don't enjoy school...who would enjoy it a lot more if they had a man teacher, and perhaps that brings in the idea of the role model" (p. 30).

A persistent theme was that male teachers would be especially advantageous to boys being brought up by single mothers. Some of the male teachers were divided, expressing the sense that they were acting as positive role models and resentment of expectations that they would serve as surrogate fathers (Francis et al., 2008). Under the stereotypical assumption that men would be better at managing boys' unruly behavior, some male teachers were given the most problematic and disruptive students. As a result,

they felt they were being exploited. The practice of placing difficult students in the classrooms of male teachers is common in the U.S. as well (Sargent, 2005).

Several teachers felt that having positive male role models was important for girls as well as boys (Francis et al., 2008). A few teachers saw being in front of a classroom as an opportunity for men to challenge culturally ingrained gender stereotypes. Based on the responses of the teachers who supported gender matching, a group that included more men, there were more suggestions that a greater presence of male teachers would reinforce gender stereotypes. Overall, most of the teachers—like most of the students—rejected the idea that students and teachers should be matched by gender. Among the women, many were frustrated and offended by implications that they were not competent to teach boys. Francis et al. (2008) concluded that there is undue attention given to the biological sex of the teacher when a more productive line of research would be the exploration of "the diverse ways in which gender is performed by teachers and pupils in the classroom" and how they affect classroom learning (p. 34).

Hutchings et al. (2008) addressed the issue of role models by examining the behaviors young children prefer in their teachers and would imitate. The authors noted that the term role model is interpreted in different ways. In one conception that underlies the drive to put more men in the classroom, role models are exemplars of ethical and responsible behavior. By that definition, all teachers are (or should be) role models. An alternative definition of a role model is an adult with whom children identity and would like to emulate. Hutchings et al. (2008) used the term role model in the context of "a person you would *like to be like* in some way" (p. 138). Their study focused on year 3 students (7-8 year olds) on the theory that children have a robust sense of gender identity

by that age. The students were from the same educational districts as those in the study of Francis et al. (2008). One-third of the students, primarily from the London group, were members of ethnic minorities, as were four teachers (Hutchings et al., 2008). The classes they represented were fairly evenly divided by the teacher's gender. Each class was observed for one day and interviews were later conducted with the teacher and three girls and three boys randomly chosen from the school register.

Out of the sample of children, 173 articulated specific qualities they liked in their teachers (Hutchings et al., 2008). The most common reason for liking teachers was how they acted toward others, followed personal qualities, and by how they taught or managed the classroom. Girls taught by women were most inclined to point to the teacher's behavior toward others (78%), while boys taught by women cited activities related to teaching (43%). More male teachers were described as being "fun" or "funny," or in terms of their knowledge and skills as teachers, while more female teachers were favored for giving rewards (p. 142). Both boys and girls were more inclined to describe teachers of the same gender as nice. Boys in general and girls taught by men were more likely to say they liked the teacher because of classroom activities. No ethnic differences were observed.

Few students identified specific ways they would like to be like their teacher, although 57% of the girls and 49% of the boys said they would like to be like their teacher in some respect (Hutchings et al., 2008). While children taught by teachers of the same gender were more predisposed to be like their teacher (66% of the girls taught by women and 55% of the boys taught by men), 43% of the boys taught by women and 49% of the girls taught by women expressed the same attitude. The overall trend in the way

the students described their teachers invokes cultural gender stereotypes (Hutchings et al., 2008). More boys who wanted to be like the teacher cited the teacher's authority, intelligence, and knowledge, whereas girls cited qualities such as being kind, nice, generous, helpful, and even pretty. Many girls did cite attributes that were gender neutral or instrumental. However, the emphasis on traditional feminine characteristics was troubling.

There was scant evidence to support the idea that boys view their male teachers as role models. Rather, the boys saw attributes of male and female teachers they would like to be part of their personal identity. Hutchings et al. (2008) concluded that the real need is not for male teachers, per se, but rather for male and female teachers who are attuned to issues of gender and are willing to challenge conventional notions of masculinity and femininity.

According to Bricheno and Thornton (2007), few children actually view their teachers as role models. Slightly more than three-quarters of girls reported as having a role model, compared to just under two-thirds of the boys. For a sizable majority of the students, a role model was someone who provided them with love and care. The idea that a role model was a person one would "respect" and "look up to" was a dominant theme, typically invoking a relative (p. 302). Following close to fathers, the boys most often chose athletes like David Beckham as their role model. A few boys and girls cited pop music figures as their role models. Only 2.4% of the students perceived a teacher as a role model.

Bricheno and Thornton (2007) proposed that teachers might have fared better if the students were asked to identify individuals they "respected" and "looked up to." In

the sample of much older students than the early grade students surveyed by Hutchings et al. (2008), teachers did not emerge as role models. Bricheno and Thornton (2007) surmised that beyond family members, the students interpreted role model to mean someone they would "want to be like" or "follow" and teachers did not fall into that category (p. 394). Bricheno and Thornton (2007) viewed their findings as a significant challenge to the "easy assumptions and un-evidence rhetoric" driving the "male teacher as role model" issue (p. 394). At the same time, they called for research that specifically articulates the meaning of "role model" for a clearer understanding of who children perceive as role models and why.

Men in Early Childhood and Elementary Education

Student Teachers

Much of the research in student teaching has used qualitative or mixed methods investigations to better understand the experiences of men in a "women's world." Skelton's (2003) study consisted of male and female students entering the one year Primary Post Graduate Certification in Education (PGCE) in England and Wales. A particular emphasis was within group gender differences between men pursuing careers teaching children in the equivalent of prekindergarten, kindergarten, and 1st grade in the U.S., and those teaching 7-11 year olds. The study also compared the responses of male and female prospective teachers.

One significant difference in the perspectives of male and female students was that more than half the women disagreed with the idea that secondary PGCE courses frequently attract applicants who are better qualified than those pursuing primary PGCE courses, while half the men were uncertain (Skelton, 2003). Some of the male students

pursuing lower primary certification endorsed the viewpoint that "secondary teaching is more acceptable" for men, as one student commented, "The majority of men that I know have gone into secondary teaching because that seems to be the thing to do" (Skelton, 2003, p. 198). Another male student speculated that the notion that men should teach secondary students and women should teach young students probably goes back to the Victorian age, when primary school teachers were unmarried women.

In terms of the historical context, Johnson (2008) proposed that defining teaching as "women's work" in the wake of the Industrial Revolution could be construed as a "remarkably clever marketing tool used by education reformers to meet the demand for teachers" (Johnson, 2008, p. 4). While men were recruited in droves for the factory floor, education reformers viewed women whose educational opportunities exceeded their career opportunities as an excellent source of cheap labor for the burgeoning public schools (female teachers earned about one third the wages of male teachers). Clever reformers framed teaching as "better suited to women's biological sensibilities" (Johnson, 2008, p. 4).

Virtually all the teacher trainees perceived primary school teaching as "equally suitable" for men or women (Skelton, 2003, p. 203). Despite this, there was a general perception that men were most prevalent as administrators of primary schools rather than teachers. Compared to the U.K., Australia, and New Zealand, the U.S. has a substantial proportion of female public school principals. In fact, more than half of the elementary school principals in the U.S. (56%) are women (Johnson, 2008). As of 2006, women comprised nearly 64% of all school administrators, and twice as many women as men are earning graduate degrees in education administration. While the gender shift in

administration bodes well for women, the U.S. still has one of the lowest proportions of men in elementary education (Drudy, 2008).

Two comments expressed by women pursuing upper primary school teaching careers exemplify the perspective that the recruitment of male teachers should be embedded within a framework of fairness and equality (Johnson, 2008; Montecinos & Nielson, 2004). One female student stated:

I believe it is important to encourage men to join primary teaching as I believe they have as much to offer to the profession as women. In my experience, the male teachers I have had have been an inspiration. (Skelton, 2003, p. 204)

Men who enter early childhood and elementary education share the student teacher's perspective (Carrington, 2002; Foster & Newman, 2005; Montecinos & Nielson, 2004; Sargent, 2004, 2005).

There was generally strong support for the idea that it was important to recruit more men into primary education to act as positive role models for young boys (Skelton, 2003). At the same time, roughly 45% of the women and one-third of the men said that the gender of the teacher was irrelevant in the primary school classroom. This apparent contradiction, along with the tendency of more men to endorse the role model theory, is similar to the findings of Francis et al. (2008). Among the male students, there was more support for the notion that the teacher's gender was relevant among those preparing to teach the upper grades (Skelton, 2003).

In addition, some of the upper primary male trainees attempted to distance themselves from their counterparts teaching young children (Skelton, 2003). In their perspectives, teaching older children was equated with intellectual learning, while

teaching younger children was equated with mothering. Overall, male teachers preparing to teach young children endorsed more of an androgynous identity, whereas individuals pursuing upper primary teaching were more inclined to accept traditional attitudes about caring and acceptable male behavior.

In a study involving student teachers pursuing the same teaching credentials as Skelton's (2003) participants, Carrington (2002) compared the perspectives of 119 male and 92 female aspiring teachers. Regardless of gender, most participants reported that they chose a career in teaching because they enjoyed working with children and wanted to "make a difference in their lives" (Carrington, 2002, p. 293). Most felt that teaching would be interesting, challenging, creative, rewarding, and satisfying. Studies by Kilinc & Mahiroglu(2009), Lerner and Zittleman (2002), Richardson and Watt (2006), Wadsworth (2001), and Watt and Richardson (2007) concluded that the intrinsic rewards of teaching, with an emphasis on joy in working with children and making a difference in children's lives, emerged in virtually every study of motivation for becoming a teacher. Markow and Cooper (2008) concluded that the overwhelming majority of U.S. teachers (82%) say they love teaching. At the same time, many teachers leave the field due to external constraints that impinge on their creativity and prevent them from creating an intellectually stimulating learning environment (Tye & O'Brien, 2002).

Some of the English primary student teachers were also apprehensive about low pay, stressful working conditions, and excessive paperwork (Carrington, 2002). Kopkowski (Scissons, 2009) together with Tye and O'Brien (2002) concluded that these are precisely the conditions contributing to high rates of teacher turnover in the United States. Analogous to the teachers surveyed by Skelton (2003), there were inevitable

references to teaching young children as caring and teaching older children as advancing their intellectual development (Carrington, 2002). Also similar, more men felt that children needed male role models, while more women viewed the teacher's gender as irrelevant to primary teaching.

A number of participants referred to the shadow of child molestation that male teachers of young children are forced to deal with (Carrington, 2002). One new teacher changing careers in his 20s reported encountering hostility from parents at a school placement with 5-year olds. The predominant view was that as long as male teachers have to deal with the specter of being a pedophile, it would be difficult to recruit more men into early childhood education. Gosse, Parr, and Allison (2008) used the phrase "policing of male affection, compassion, and sensitivity toward children" to describe how behaviors that were "virtual non-issues for their female colleagues" made male teacher candidates the uncomfortable focus of scrutiny (p. 65). Unless strategic plans are undertaken to deal with suspicions of male teachers, it will continue to act as a barrier not only to prospective teachers, but also to fully exploiting the talents of men who chose careers in early childhood education (Sargent, 2004, 2005).

Educators

The focus group study conducted by Cooney and Bittner (2001) included male preservice teachers, practicing teachers, and professors involved in four one-hour sessions centered on choosing careers in early childhood education. Six major issues emerged from the sessions: (a) low salaries, (b) families and other influences on entering the field, (c) teaching beyond the basics, (d) improving preservice education, (e)

recruiting males into the field, and (f) the advantages and disadvantages of being males in a field dominated by females.

Powerful intrinsic motivation to teach counteracted the realities of earning a low salary and negative perceptions of men entering a field with low pay (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). However, men also challenged societal gender attitudes in terms of their own career; several expressed attitudes perpetuating restrictive gender roles by situating themselves as the main breadwinners of their families. Experiences were mixed regarding support from their families for the men's chosen careers. Some had supportive families, while others did not. Friends, on the other hand, were not supportive of their choice of career. In fact, the question of whether the men were given a hard time by their friends for their career choice elicited a resounding "yes" from the group and much laughter (Coooney & Bittner, 2001).

The issue of going beyond the basics in teaching illuminated the range of individual teaching styles (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). Two preservice teachers said they perceived themselves as role models in the community, not only in the classroom. Efforts to recruit Black men into teaching are typically based on the assumption that their impact as role models will extend beyond the school walls (Chmelynski, 2006). Being a good teacher involved listening to students, taking cues from students, taking risks in discussing pertinent issues, and going beyond a rigid curriculum (Cooney & Bittner, 2001).

In terms of improving the college curriculum, there was a general feeling that early childhood teacher education is gender biased in favor of women (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). Several participants acknowledged that they had never thought of gender bias until

the issue arose in discussion. Several participants thought it was important for male students to have male mentors during their field experience. The overall opinion was that many talented aspiring male teachers are probably lost to the field because they lack support in college. There was unanimous agreement that campus groups for male student teachers were essential to retention.

Although they are widely endorsed, there is the question of whether student teachers are willing to invest in a group (Thornton, 1999). Thornton (1999) described the Men's Club, an informal forum at an English university where male students could get together to discuss issues. The idea of a men's club was thought to appeal to men. Out of 25 students, 12 attended at least one club meeting and most attended sporadically. The club was a good idea, but the students lacked the commitment to keep it going and it never fulfilled its intended aim as a venue for networking. According to Thornton (1999), the lack of commitment to the men's club reflected a lack of commitment to teaching as well. Thus, it would seem that the success of a campus group for male students would depend a great deal upon the participants.

Cooney and Bittner's (2001) participants viewed the cultural stereotype of women as "mommies" and nurturers, a role that men do not assume, as a major obstacle to recruiting more men into the field. They proposed that having at least one male teacher in every primary grade would be an effective recruiting technique by providing a visible affirmation that teaching could be a good career choice for males.

The advantages and disadvantages of having male teachers in early childhood education was viewed as a highly important issue both personally and professionally and was a topic of extensive and intensive discussion (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). Notably,

there was a general consensus that any advantage lay in being "a male *and* a good teacher," not simply being a male teacher (p. 80). Inevitably, the issue of male role models arose. The participants felt that the presence of male role models in the preschool and primary grade settings could be a tremendous advantage for some children. Several participants related positive experiences where their presence made a difference for a boy who was "difficult," or motivated students who had been apathetic or disengaged. At the same time, the men continually stressed the importance of being a good teacher. They felt that a poor male role model could prove quite detrimental.

Feeling isolated in college and in the school setting was a common experience among the male teachers (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). According to Inman and Marlow (2004) together with Kopkowski (Scissons, 2009), isolation and lack of support are common reasons for leaving the teaching profession. Such feelings are intensified for the sole male teacher in early childhood education (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). The final disadvantage and unquestionably the most emotionally charged and stressful issue for men in early childhood education was the "touch issue" (p. 81), which has been noted in multiple studies as a major deterrent to males considering the profession.

Gosse et al. (2008) framed the embedded cultural beliefs that women are better suited to taking care of children or that males who are involved in child care are potential sexual aggressors as factors that lead to symbolic violence against the men who are viewed as transgressors against unwritten beliefs. Manifestations of symbolic violence include ignoring male teachers, denying them mentoring opportunities, or depriving them of the knowledge needed to succeed in classroom teaching such as important strategies

for lesson planning or classroom management. Attrition of men from the field is a virtually inevitable consequence of symbolic violence.

Smith (2004) presented a multi-methods analysis of the advantages and disadvantages of being a male primary school teacher that covered all of the topics addressed by the focus group participants (Cooney & Bittner, 2001). From a feminist post structural perspective, Smith (2004) synthesized findings from a research review, media discourse analysis focused on an exploration of Australian newspapers between 1994 and 2004, statistics of male primary school teachers in Australia, and the experiences of male primary school teachers to identify advantages and disadvantages of being a male teaching young children.

The disadvantages encompassed negative reactions on the part of friends, family, and society in general to the decision to teach children and the problems involved in training to teach primary school. Additionally, the process of constructing one's identity as a "real man" while doing "women's work," societal perceptions of being a pedophile, and unrealistic societal expectations to provide role models for boys discouraged many males (Smith, 2004). The discourse of nurturing, caring, and mothering, status and salary issues, being surrounded by women, loneliness and isolation, and pressures and extra workload due to decreases in the number of male primary teachers all contributed to negative experiences in male teachers (Smith, 2004).

There is some evidence that male teachers have an advantage in being hired because they are in demand but in short supply (Smith, 2004). Another advantage identified by Smith (2004) was gaining rapid promotion. Although this issue emerges repeatedly in research from Australia and England, it is less certain whether male

teachers have an advantage in the U.S. where increasing numbers of women are becoming school administrators (Johnson, 2008). However, in Montecinos and Nielsen's (2004) study of male preservice elementary school teachers in the Midwest, the vast majority intended to leave teaching with a fairly short time for careers in education administration, higher education teaching, or other positions of leadership.

Smith (2004) also cited an advantage in being mentored, noticed, and appreciated. However, there is at least as much evidence that male teachers in early childhood education have fewer mentoring opportunities and are not treated with due respect (Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Gosse et al., 2008). As far as being noticed, male teachers are more often under discomforting scrutiny (Sargent, 2004, 2005).

According to Smith's (2004) research, male teachers have an advantage in carving a specialized niche by involvement in areas regarded as masculine such as coaching sports, teaching or working with technology, or going into upper grade teaching. However, these activities simply reinforce societal gender stereotypes. In addition, many who choose early childhood education are typically committed to that specialty area and prefer support in their chosen field to changing to other teaching endeavors (Carrington, 2002; Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Cushman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005; Skelton, 2003).

Cushman (2005) conducted a focus group study with 17 male teachers employed in New Zealand primary schools, all of whom reported that working with children was their main motivation for their career choice. Most of the participants had entered teaching as a second career; indeed a common theme in the literature is the strong motivation for teaching among career changers (Lerner & Zittleman, 2002; Priyadharshini & Robinson-Pant, 2003; Smedley, 2007; Wadsworth, 2001). A small but

significant segment of second career teachers was composed of men and women who rejected the prospect of a teaching career when they first entered college, but years later decided they would enjoy teaching. Another group of second career teachers consisted of men from working class backgrounds whose job loss compelled them to find a new occupation. For men in this group, engaging in non-gender typical work is a novel experience (Cushman, 2005; Smedley, 2007).

Illustrating the influence of societal expectations on men who choose teaching careers, several focus group participants said in anticipation of a negative reaction from friends and family, they led others to believe they were pursuing secondary school teaching or school administration (Cushman, 2005). Factors such as their previous career, their educational background, and their social environment played a role in how the decision to teach primary grade education was perceived by others. Coming from a family of teachers could have positive or negative effects depending upon the relatives' satisfaction with teaching or perceptions of the current state of teaching. Perhaps reflecting the high rates of turnover in teaching, negative responses outweighed positive responses among relatives who were teachers.

Jones (2006, 2007) explored the attitudes of male and female teachers to the prevailing viewpoint that males are needed in teaching to serve as positive role models in light of England's national recruitment efforts for male teachers. The interview participants were 18 male teachers and 13 female teachers. The study took place in England, where the role model theory is a driving force in a government initiative to recruit male teachers. The female teachers initially expressed agreement with the

initiative, but as the interviews progressed, it was clear that they had some hesitation (Jones, 2006).

A common viewpoint was that the presence of male teachers would bring "balance" to the schools because the schools would better reflect the composition of the greater society (Jones, 2006, p. 69). There was some perception that it was unhealthy for children and adults to have such a great imbalance by gender. However, precisely why it was unhealthy was never articulated. A second reason cited for recruiting more men as role models was the absence of fathers in many families or, alternately, the presence of men who were negative role models.

For Montecinos and Nielsen (2004), this common argument in favor of male teachers reflects a deficit perspective of families. According to the authors, the economically disadvantaged students who are the typical focus of the role model discourse are expected to emulate a middle class male teacher whose experience is outside the realm of their lives. They see a colonial or missionary connotation to that justification for hiring male teachers.

Studies by Chmelynski (2006), Holsendolph (Jackson et al., 2013), and Richard (2005) found that there are programs focused specifically on recruiting Black men into teaching. Currently, most of these programs are small. The emphasis on increasing the numbers of male teachers largely ignores the issue of social class. Montecinos and Nielsen (2004) placed the issue of recruiting more male teachers within the framework of fairness and diversity. They envisioned an educational milieu that is free of gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes were evident in the female teachers' perceptions of men in early childhood teaching (Jones, 2003). At the same time, the women expressed their

views of what Jones (2003) labeled “the right kind of man” who fused traditional masculine and feminine qualities (p. 566).

Jones (2007) reported that all of the male teachers interviewed thought more men should be teaching in primary grade education, unanimously citing the importance of male role models as the key reason. This paralleled the response of the female teachers (Jones, 2006) who provided unanimous support for the idea of male role models, but provided only ambiguous reasons for their endorsement (Jones, 2007). Several participants expressed the need for ethnic role models. One Black teacher related how he was often called “Bob Marley” due to his dreadlocks. While his account was intentionally humorous, the teacher’s message was a caution against stereotyping on the basis of ethnicity or gender. Placing the situation of male primary teachers within the framework of identity formation, Jones (2003) stated that the male teacher has the power to project an image of “the right kind of man” and thereby achieve the status of a “millennium man” (p. 192).

As in all studies reviewed, the male teachers were aware that they were under scrutiny as potential sexual predators (Jones, 2007). The male early childhood teachers in Sargent’s (2004, 2005) qualitative research articulated a variety of strategies that they used to forge bonds with the children they were not allowed to physically touch. Sargent (2005) labeled these strategies as “compensatory,” but they have also been called “gender strategies (p. 177). According to Sargent (2005), although activities such as substituting rewards, games, and high-fives for physical contact are often interpreted as attempts to preserve a masculine identity in a feminized environment, these activities are attempts to avoid any accusation of pedophilia. All of the teachers mentioned policies (either explicit

or implicit) that dictated different sets of behaviors for men and women, which ultimately "affects the men's teaching style, deprives children of needed affection, and reproduces the image of men as not being sources of love and nurturing" (Sargent, 2005, p. 178).

Sargent's (2004, 2005) ambitious research project on the gendered nature of early childhood education involved in-depth interviews with more than 50 men employed in early childhood education, 10 elementary school principals, five preschool or child care center directors, and eight faculty members of colleges of education, including two deans. The overarching theme was that men were continually under close scrutiny and had to remain aware of their gender and constantly monitor how their actions appeared to others. Men who exhibit "normal" signifiers of masculinity may be portrayed as incompetent in caring for children, or in the worst-case scenario, "utterly dangerous" (Sargent, 2005, p. 186). Yet paradoxically, any sign of "femininity" could be interpreted as being gay, which is also associated with pedophilia. The result of which is "walking on eggshells" on a daily basis (Sargent, 2005, p. 187).

Finally, a number of the participants observed that posters of men in education often position them "front and center, distanced from the children," which contributes to public perceptions of the "difference" of male teachers (Sargent, 2005, p. 189). Instead, they advocate that posters and other public media "reflect the contributions of men to the education of the whole child" (Sargent, 2005, p. 89).

Teachers' Career Paths

Among human resources (HR) professionals, it is widely recognized that not all job turnover is bad. People who leave a given profession or workplace often do so because of a poor person-environment fit. The positive news for the state of teaching and

learning is that many teachers who leave the profession are ineffective (Carnoy, 2000). On the negative side, many new teachers with strong academic credentials leave the profession each year and another substantial proportion transfer from schools with the most urgent needs for good teachers due to poor working conditions and inadequate resources and support. Retaining high quality teachers is at least as important as attracting them to the teaching profession. For the most part, men and women express the same reasons for becoming teachers, for being satisfied or dissatisfied with their jobs, and for staying within or leaving the teaching profession (Skelton, 2009). However, as Skelton (2009) and others have acknowledged, in a gendered profession like teaching, it is impossible to ignore sociocultural influences, especially in a field that hinges on interpersonal interactions with various stakeholder groups. Valuable insight on how to retain teachers—male and female—can be learned from the experiences of those who have left the profession or are contemplating leaving the field.

Attracting Qualified Males

Based on his work, Sargent (2005) outlined five elements of an action plan for increasing the number of men in early childhood education. The first is a media campaign portraying men interacting positively with young children in the same way that is accepted for women. The second step is to target recruitment efforts directly to boys and young men. The third step is that colleges of education need to go out of their way to make men feel welcome analogous to efforts to welcome women into engineering and science. Fourth, schools must strive to create and maintain “men friendly” workplaces. In general, teachers who feel their work environment is supportive are most inclined to stay (Inman & Marlow, 2004).

In addition to providing collegial support, an important way to support male early childhood educators is to train school personnel about how to respond to any inquiries from parents or others about the suitability of having men working closely with children (Sargent, 2005). In Sweden, professional development activities in teacher education programs and schools include discussions on gender and the interactions of male and female teachers with students (Cushman, 2007). Cushman (2007) also advocated for creating support structures for student teachers to ensure that they will be supported should they encounter any form of gender discrimination in training and fieldwork.

Staying Versus Leaving the Teaching Profession

Researchers in England (Thornton & Bricheno, 2008) and the U.S. (Anderson, 2008) examined the career trajectories of teachers who entered the teaching profession in the 1990s. The primary focus of Thornton and Bricheno (2008) was on men who chose careers in elementary education. Anderson's (2008) report focused on 1993 college graduates using data from the 1993/2003 Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study (B&B:93/03). As other studies report, Thornton and Bricheno (2008) found that men and women had similar motives for choosing a teaching career. However, some differences surfaced as well. Men were more likely to choose elementary education due to benefits such as extended vacations, retirement pensions, and career prospects. Women more often cited working with children, making a difference in children's lives, and having a career that fits well with a family as their motives for entering teaching. At the same time, working with children was the paramount reason for teaching for women and men, a consistent finding in research (Skelton, 2009).

Men and women also routinely cite the lower salaries and status of teaching compared to other professions as barriers to a teaching career or reasons for leaving the profession. Thornton and Bricheno (2008) found both issues to be among the main concerns expressed by the men and women in their 1998 survey. Salary was the foremost concern of 70% of the men and 68.6% of the women. However, there was a notable difference in the perceptions of men and women in concerns over the prestige of the teaching profession, a key concern expressed by 65% of the men compared to 47.1% of the women. On the other hand, more women than men, 63.6% versus 50%, were concerned about heavy workloads.

A decade later, a public opinion survey conducted in the U.K. found that 50% of the British public considered teaching to be an attractive career (Everton, Turner, Hargreaves, & Pell, 2007). Even more intriguing, men and women were equally likely to share this viewpoint and among older respondents, more men than women viewed teaching even more favorably. Everton et al. (2007) noted that while there have been steadily upward trends in public perceptions of teaching, they had not anticipated such positive responses from men. Another unexpected finding was that the public awarded equal status to elementary and secondary school teachers. This finding contradicts the cultural stereotype that teaching younger children carries lower prestige than teaching older children and adolescents.

Everton et al. (2007) concluded that teachers underestimate the respect that the general public has for the teaching profession. They suggested that the increasing respect with which teachers (particularly primary school teachers) are viewed might be due to nationally publicized initiatives that emphasize teachers' professional standards and

qualifications and the pivotal role teachers' play in students' academic achievement. Since the 1990s, the U.K. and the U.S. have adopted similar nationwide initiatives to improve the quality of teaching and learning with a strong emphasis on staffing classrooms with highly qualified teachers. According to Markow and Cooper (2008), in the U.S., teachers consider their profession to have a much higher status today than it did 20 years ago.

On the negative side, the same policies and initiatives that have raised the status of teaching are causing dissatisfaction among teachers on both sides of the Atlantic by placing undue emphasis on tests and constraining teachers' professional autonomy (Skelton, 2009; Thornton & Bricheno, 2008; Tye & O'Brien, 2002). Among the U.K. public, those with negative views of a teaching career cited "stress" and "large workloads" as key reasons for not wanting to teach (Everton et al., 2007, p. 259). Thornton and Bricheno (2008) found that more women than men cited stress (and health) (16.5% versus 10%) as a concern about teaching, though it was much lower down on the list than heavy workloads.

Thornton and Bricheno (2008) conducted their follow-up study of teachers who left the profession in 2005. Salary, workload, and status were all perceived as less important concerns in 2005 than in 1998, with actual increases in pay and professional prestige accounting for the changes in teachers' perceptions. Students' behavior was cited as an important concern for men who entered teaching in 1998, and was one of the major reasons for men leaving the profession in 2005. This pattern suggests that the stereotypical image of men being experts at maintaining classroom discipline may be

having a detrimental effect. More than one-third (35%) of the men who left teaching cited behavior as a key reason, compared to 22.7% of the women who left.

Gender issues, which were raised as concerns by 30% of the men and 5% of the women who entered teaching in 1998, were not reported as reasons for leaving by men or women who left the profession (Thornton & Bricheno, 2008). In contrast, government initiatives were major concerns for men and women when they entered the teaching profession and gained even more importance over time for the men who left. When they began their careers, 35% of the men expressed concerns over government policies, but more than half (57.6%) of those who left implicated government initiatives in their decision. Among women, the proportion of new teachers and leavers who were concerned with government initiatives was basically stable, but was given slightly more relevance by those who left (43% versus 44%). The negative impact of government initiatives on teachers' job satisfaction is quite apparent among U.S. teachers who left or considered leaving the field (Tye & O'Brien, 2002).

Using the B&B:93/03 data, Anderson (2008) divided the teaching graduates into four categories based on their career trajectories: 31% were teaching in 1994, 1997, and 2003, and were classified as *taught consistently*; 41% were not teaching in 1994 but had started teaching by 1997 or 2003 and were labeled *late starters*; 16% had begun teaching in 1994 but left the field by 1997 or 2003 (*leavers*); and 12% who were either teaching in 1994 and 2003 but were not teaching in 1997 or were teaching in 1997 but not 1994 or 2003 were called *other teachers.* Higher proportions of women than men (33.4% versus 25%) and White teachers than Black teachers (32.7% versus 15.3%) were among the teachers that taught consistently. Ethnically, however, Latino teachers were most likely to

teach consistently (34.4%). Across gender and ethnicity, late starters comprised the largest segment of the teaching graduates.

The Alliance for Excellent Education strongly advocates for teacher induction as a strategy for retaining novice teachers (Francis et al., 2008). However, according to Anderson, the B&B data showed no differences in the career paths of teachers related to whether or not they participated in induction (2008). While salary may not be the main reason for teachers' leaving or staying in teaching, the objective data reveals that salary (or at least low salaries) can have an important impact on teachers' career trajectories. Teachers earning the lowest salaries were the most likely to leave the teaching profession. Anderson (2008) noted that despite initiatives aimed at recruiting more men and minorities into teaching, women not only comprised the overwhelming majority of new teachers in 1994, but were also the most committed to teaching consistently over the next 10 years.

Innovative Recruiting Programs

Troops to Teachers

Since its inception in 1994, Troops to Teachers has been providing active and retired military personnel opportunities to pursue a second career in teaching (Feistritzer, 2005). Military candidates are required to sign an agreement stating they will obtain certification or licensure in elementary, secondary, technical, or vocational teaching and meet the standards of a highly qualified teacher, typically defined as a teacher who has earned full state certification or licensure, holds a baccalaureate degree or higher, and has demonstrated subject matter in the academic areas the teacher is teaching. An additional requirement is that the candidates must agree to teach for a minimum of 3 years in a high-

needs school district or public charter school (Could, 2006). Individuals with military or educational experience in mathematics, science, special education, or technical or vocational subjects are given priority if they agree to take teaching positions in those areas.

According to data from the academic years 2001-2002 through 2004-2005, roughly 90% of the Troops teachers remained in the high-needs district during their second year of teaching and more than three-quarters persisted in those districts the third year (Could, 2006). Approximately one-third of the Troops who became teachers during that period taught in the high priority subjects. However, the most remarkable feature of the Troops teachers is their demographic composition: 82% are male, 37% are persons of color, and about one-quarter is Black (Feistritzer, 2005).

The Troops teachers are also considerably older than the general U.S. teaching force. Virtually all Troops teachers are over 30, and 90% are over the age of 40, thereby imbuing them with a sense of maturity. The Troops teachers consider many aspects of their military experience as highly valuable assets for teaching. In descending order, the top 10 are: life experience, discipline, problem solving, leadership, professionalism, diversity, cultural sensitivity, working with superiors, teamwork, and remaining focused on teaching goals amidst disruptions. As a group, they are extremely confident, highly qualified (two-thirds have master's degrees), and dedicated to the philosophy that all children are capable of learning; they are also highly dedicated to their teaching careers (Feistritzer, 2005). Personnel from state placement offices uniformly praise the Troops teachers for the positive qualities they bring to the classroom (Could, 2006).

Feistritzer (2005) declared that, "No one denies the positive impact of former military personnel teaching young adolescent males" (p. 6). However, few are changing the gender or ethnic landscape of elementary education. Close to half the Troops teachers (47%) are teaching in high schools and about one-third are teaching in middle or junior high schools. This distribution is in accordance with the driving force of the program, which was to place urgently needed qualified mathematics and science teachers in urban classrooms (Could, 2006). Additionally, 20% of the Troops teachers are teaching special education, another high priority area (Feistritzer, 2005). Rice and Goessling (Jackson, Wright, & Perrone-McGovern, 2010) further added that men comprise less than 1% of all elementary special education teachers (0.4%) and 2.2% of secondary special educators. The overrepresentation of minority boys in special education is an issue of persistent concern, and one goal of Troops to Teachers is to diversify the special education teaching force.

More than 60% of the Troops teachers cited a desire to work with young people as their motivation for entering teaching (Could, 2006). According to Feistritzer (2006), for many, teaching high school students parallels their experience teaching or training young military recruits. Close to 60% claimed that they would not have gone into teaching if not for Troops for Teachers, and an additional 20% were not certain whether they would have or not. Nearly all (97%) said they would recommend the program to other qualified candidates, certainly excellent word-of-mouth advertising. However, the data show that most Troops teachers are concentrated in seven states: California, Colorado, Arizona, Florida, Texas, Virginia, and Georgia (Could, 2006). According to placement staff, the pattern is at least partly due to the locations of military bases and

personnel. There have been recommendations to improve the coordination of Troops to Teachers with other national teacher recruitment efforts and hiring agencies.

Call Me MISTER

According to the studies of Chmelynski (2006), Holsendolph (Jackson et al., 2013), and Richard (2005), Call Me MISTER (Men Instructing Students Toward Effective Role Models) was launched in 1999 as a partnership between Clemson University and several historically black colleges and universities in South Carolina. The program is named for Sidney Poitier's classic response to the white Southern sheriff in the film "In the Heat of the Night," "They call me *Mister* Tibbs." The title symbolizes respect, pride, and dignity for Black males. A hallmark of the program is that the "MISTERS" are trained to teach elementary school students. The study by Holsendolph (Jackson et al., 2013) added that Dr. Tom Parker, an education management professor at Clemson, developed the idea as a strategy for addressing the paucity of Black men in elementary education. Black men represent less than 1% of the teachers in South Carolina, numbering less than 200 teachers for the 600 public schools in a state where 30% of the population is Black.

The program directors recognize that they are faced with a formidable task to produce the number of graduates that would make a significant impact in the demographics of the South Carolina teaching force. As of 2006, there were 45 MISTERS teaching in classrooms and 140 more still in training (Chmelynski, 2006). Candidates are recruited in the upper high school grades or early in college (Richard, 2005). They are awarded partial scholarships and provided with leadership training and individual support

throughout their college careers. The program tries to persuade young men of the utmost importance of teaching as a career.

According to numerous anecdotal reports, the MISTERS are making a significant impact in the schools despite their small numbers. Holsendolph (Jackson et al., 2013) and Richard (2005) found that the principals at their schools were virtually unanimous in praising the enthusiastic new teachers for their leadership skills, classroom decorum, and their positive effects on the students. The MISTERS embodied the idea of authentic, experiential learning. For example, one social studies specialist who is also a musician uses hip-hop in his American history lessons. Music is an excellent communication tool because it gives individuals a style of their own.

Holsendolph (Jackson et al., 2013) added that another MISTER, who has a master's degree in education and teaches at a middle school, noted that he plays the role of an authority figure in the lives of some of his students and he fulfills the role of a counselor for boys and girls. Field coordinator Winston Holton declared, "We never want to give the misperception that we are producing teachers for Black male students. We are producing quality effective teachers who are going to meet the needs of all their students" (Chmelynski, 2006, p. 42). Holton emphasized that it is important for students see Black males "in authority roles—roles of responsibility, academic roles..." (p. 42). He described Call Me MISTER as a "leadership program" whose students are "change agents in the community, and they are trying to empower students to become change agents also." Chmelynski (2006), Holsendolph (2007), and Richard (2005) concluded that the overarching goal of Call Me MISTER is to produce good teachers who can motivate all students.

National TEACH Campaign

In September of 2010, the U.S. Department of Education launched the National TEACH Campaign, a program designed to reach out to young men and women with a "call to the classroom" (McCracken, 2010). Introducing the ambitious new initiative aimed at students and young adults, Secretary of Education Arne Duncan declared:

> With more than a million teachers expected to retire in the coming years, we have a historic opportunity to transform public education in America by calling on a new generation to join those already in the classroom. We are working with the broader education community to strengthen and elevate the entire teaching profession so that every teacher has the support and training they need. (Levine, 2006)

The TEACH campaign's target audience is young adults between 19 and 25, although broadly it aims to attract talented candidates up to age 30 (McCracken, 2010). TEACH's overarching message is that teaching is vitally important to the greater society and a rewarding career to the individual. TEACH is clearly designed to reach out to a generation that grew up with sophisticated technologies. The TEACH website has a novel, interactive Pathway to Teaching tool that helps visitors chart their prospective course to becoming a teacher.

The USDOE is also collaborating with Facebook on an interactive application on the TEACH Facebook page that connects interested visitors with practicing teachers. With that application, anyone who has questions about the teaching profession can have their questions answered directly by an experienced teacher. The USDOE is also working with *Ebony* magazine on a series of teaching roundtables to be held across the U.S. In

addition, the campaign is bolstered by public service announcements (PSAs) by celebrities, members of the Obama administration, and local leaders celebrating American teachers and encouraging students to contemplate teaching as a career. Creating a more diverse teaching force with more men and more minorities that better represents the composition of 21st century students is one of the major objectives of the campaign.

TEACH has several ambitious goals. A primary goal, according to the U.S. Department of Education (Levine, 2006), is to increase the number, quality, and diversity of people seeking careers in teaching, particularly in high-needs schools (urban and rural) and in subjects and disciplines with the greatest demand; these include: science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), teaching English language learners, and special education. Second, TEACH is structured to link aspiring teachers with information regarding the pathways to teaching, including preparation, certification, training, and mentoring. Third, and perhaps essential to achieving its goals, the publicity surrounding TEACH exalts and honors the teaching profession. TEACH may be construed as a reinvention of the teaching profession for the 21st century. Its essential message is built on raising the image and status of the teaching profession while delivering the serious message that excellent teachers are urgently needed.

Somewhat cynically, McCracken (2010) observed that in a society obsessed with celebrities in entertainment and sports, TEACH faces a formidable challenge in gaining the interest and commitment of talented candidates. Noting the urgency of cultivating a skilled and dedicated teaching force, he calls on teachers, “the shapers of minds and ideas, to rise to the challenge to remind the world how much teaching matter.”

McCracken (2010) recalled Secretary Duncan's speech before the 2010 graduating class at Xavier University in New Orleans, in which he related that as head of the Chicago Public Schools, he went into elementary schools that had no Black male teachers even though most of the students were Black and from single-parent families. Duncan cited "the under-representation of African American men in the teaching profession" as a "serious problem" that will not resolve itself.

McCracken (2010) noted that the original mission of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) was to produce a generation of Black teachers. A century ago, education was recognized as a key to empowerment and equality; in the 21st century, a good education is essential to full participation in the global society. The TEACH campaign represents a dramatic departure from past teacher recruitment drives in its scope, its vision of the future of teaching and learning, its celebration of the teaching profession, and not insignificantly, in capitalizing on all forms of media to send out a message to young people that teaching is a rewarding career.

Summary

The number of male teachers has declined dramatically in the U.S. and in other Western countries (Cushman, 2007; Driessen, 2007; Drudy, 2008; Johnson, 2008). The absence of men in the classroom is especially pronounced in elementary education. The dearth of male teachers and the underperformance of boys compared to girls in certain key subject areas have generated claims of a "boy crisis," leading to calls to recruit more men into teaching. In England, the drive to recruit male teachers is enacted in government policy (Francis et al., 2008; Jones, 2006, 2007). In the U.S., there are continual references to a need for male role models for Black boys (Chmelynski, 2006). The dual assumptions

that boys need male role models and that students perform better with a teacher of the same gender underlie the current recruitment efforts (Johnson, 2008). Upon analysis of the existing research, however, neither argument has empirical support.

According to Dee's (2006) findings, being matched with a teacher of the same gender results in higher academic achievement for boys and girls. Other studies by Carrington et al. (2008), Driessen (2007), Marsh et al. (2008), Sokal et al. (2007), and Sokal and Katz (2008) have reported negligible effects for gender. The alleged benefits of male role models for boys are also open to question (Bricheno & Thornton, 2007; Carrington et al., 2008; Francis et al., 2008; Johnson, 2008). Nevertheless, there is evidence that some boys will benefit from being taught by men. Furthermore, there is an urgent need for good teachers irrespective of gender.

Salary and prestige are often cited as obstacles to the recruitment of more men into teaching (Johnson, 2008). However, these factors dissuade women as well and cannot account for the diminishing numbers of men in the classroom. Of all factors, the specter of being perceived as a sexual predator, causing male teachers to continually be on their guard, is the most formidable obstacle (Sargent, 2005). The suspicion on men who work with young children represents one end of a spectrum of gender stereotypes and the notion of teaching young children as women's work represents the opposite end. Until these issues are dealt with in open discussion and men are supported in the decision to enter teaching it is unlikely that there will be a significant change in the gender imbalance of teaching. These findings underscore the importance of further study, particularly in crafting recruitment initiatives based on empirical data.

Section 3: Methodology

Introduction

In this chapter, I provide an overview of the cross-sectional descriptive design for this study and discuss the rationale for this design. Additionally, I present the methodology for this study, including a description of the participants, the researcher's role, and how the participants' privacy was protected. I also explain the procedures for this study: the instrumentation, data collection, and analysis of data.

For some time, North Carolina has been facing a growing teacher shortage; more specifically, the state is experiencing declining numbers of men in K–12 classrooms (Cornett & Gaines, 2002; Hines & Mathis, 2007). School districts, colleges, and universities have made efforts to attract more men into teaching positions, but despite such efforts, North Carolina continues to have a proportionally lower number of male teachers than females (Wood, 2012). The school district feeder area selected for this study, a large district in eastern North Carolina, reflects the state and national trends (Greene, 2011). While the national percentage of male teachers is approximately 21%, North Carolina reports 20% male teachers, and the school district for this study employs 18% male teachers (Greene, 2011). This problem is not unique to North Carolina or to the United States. Several countries with decreasing numbers of men choosing teaching careers have launched national efforts to recruit more men into teaching, but these programs have fallen short of their goals (Skelton, 2009).

Both male and female teachers are primarily driven to teach by intrinsic motivations, but extrinsic motivations such as notably low salaries and comparatively low prestige present barriers, especially for males (Mullola et al., 2011). Many initiatives

designed to recruit more men into teaching, based on the notion that more males are needed in the profession, are annoying to male prospective teachers and are therefore counterproductive (Skelton, 2009). While studies have been conducted on investigating factors that attract individuals to the teaching profession, there is still an overall lack of empirical evidence regarding any differentiating factors that may exist between genders.

The key to enabling programs to recruit male teachers lies in understanding the individual and societal factors that underlie the decision to teach. Sanatullova-Allison (2010) offered an apt explanation from her study *Why Men Become Elementary School Teachers: Insights from an Elementary Teacher Education Program*:

> Many men come to teaching because they conclude that there is congruence between the needs of the profession and their own needs for self actualization. In addition, it is likely that these men actually discover that they do not represent the danger to children we have all been raised to accept. (Sanatullova-Allison, 2010, p. 39)

Sargent (2004, 2005) has conducted extensive research with men who have chosen careers in early childhood education and has characterized education as the discipline most enshrouded in cultural gender stereotypes. In order for schools to establish effective recruitment programs, they have to understand the underlying perceptions and feelings at the societal and individual levels. Johnson (2008) elaborated on this topic, stating:

> Teaching's association with care, nurturance, and domesticity firmly places the profession outside the normative boundaries of what are acceptable masculine practices. Challenging such boundaries leads to negative scrutiny

within larger society, and many men are therefore reluctant to work with children. (p. 4)

For men and women alike, the foremost reasons cited for entering the teaching profession are working with children and adolescents and making a difference in children's lives (Skelton, 2009). For individual men and women who have chosen teaching careers, their professional identities as teachers override their gender identity in the classroom. The reasons for choosing a teaching career include the wish to make a difference, a personal belief in teaching, and what the individual sees as their personal talents for teaching (Richardson & Watt, 2006).

In order to design effective recruitment initiatives, specific factors that motivate men to become teachers need to be identified and examined alongside specific factors that motivate women to become teachers. The results of this study may be useful to schools and school districts in teacher recruitment in North Carolina; therefore, the target population is North Carolina teachers. The purpose of the current study was to determine whether there are significant differences in the reported motivation factors for becoming a teacher among males versus females.

Research Design

Because the purpose of this study was to determine whether there are significant differences in the reported motivation factors for becoming a teacher between males versus females, a cross-sectional descriptive design was the most appropriate method. Descriptive research enables researchers to determine the present condition or status of a situation, as opposed to inferential research which tries to determine cause and effect (Spector, Merrill, Elen, & Bishop, 2001).

This cross-sectional descriptive study provided specific data to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What difference exists between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H1_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H1$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ2: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H2_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H2$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ3: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H3_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become at teacher between males and females.

$H3$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ4: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females?

*H*4$_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*4: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ5: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females?

*H*5$_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*5: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *time for family to become a teacher between* males and females.

RQ6: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job transferability to become a teacher* between males and females?

*H*6$_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*6: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ7: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females?

*H*7$_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*7: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ8: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H8_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*8: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ9: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H9_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*9: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ10: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H10_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*10: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ11: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H11_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*11: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ12: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H12_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher males and females.

*H*12: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ13: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H13_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females.

*H*13: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females.

RQ14: To what extent, if any, do motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males differ from motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females?

$H14_0$: There will be no significant difference between motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males and motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females.

*H*14: There will be a significant difference between motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males and motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females.

Population

Male and female teachers in all grades K-12 in the southern feeder area of a school district in eastern North Carolina comprised the targeted population for the current

study. According to data from the North Carolina Public Schools Report Card (2012), the selected school district employed 314 teachers in the targeted feeder area. Males comprised 18% of this total; females comprised 82% (NC Report Card, 2012). This population was a good target for studying the factors that influence males and females to choose the teaching profession, and because the data may be used in crafting recruitment programs in North Carolina, this population was especially appropriate. Gathering information from this group may provide data that can be used to create specific teacher recruitment programs in and around the eastern North Carolina region. Findings may increase diversity in the teaching force and strengthen teacher recruitment programs such as future teacher clubs, workshops, or classes at high schools or colleges in eastern North Carolina. By helping to create increased diversity in classrooms, this study will ultimately benefit the students, both boys and girls.

In 2013, North Carolina teachers have faced salary freezes, tenure elimination, larger class sizes, and removal of bonus pay for advanced degrees (Park, 2013). With salaries in the bottom five states in the country, North Carolina teachers struggle to remain in the field (Maher & Sztajn, 2013). Continued discussion and examination of factors that attract teachers to the profession is most needed at this critical time in the state's history.

From this population, I invited all potential participants to participate in the study to ensure that I received a sufficient number of responses. This ensured a group of participants to use that was representative of the entire population.

The study aimed for the highest possible response rate to provide robust results. Data from a larger population allows the researcher to be more precise in examining

prevalence of a phenomenon. The researcher worked for a response rate greater than 70% to allow for such robust results.

Instrumentation

The participants used the Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) scale (Watt & Richardson, 2004) (Appendix A) to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with certain factors that may have influenced their choice of teaching. These factors are rated using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important).

Based on the need to evaluate the participants' reasons and influencing factors for choosing teaching, I needed to use a tool designed for this purpose. The FIT-Choice scale (Watt & Richardson, 2004) was ideally suited to this study. The FIT-Choice scale (Watt & Richardson, 2004) gave the me a solid layout for approaching the task of identifying each individual motivation and relevant factors that influence the decision to teach (Appendix A). This scale allowed the participants to rate various factors on a scale that denote the level of agreement/disagreement or like/dislike based on a number system (Watt & Richardson, 2007). The survey included questions such as, "Read the statement and rate how important it was in your decision to become a teacher, from 1(not at all important) to 7(extremely important): Teachers make a worthwhile social contribution" (Watt & Richardson, 2004) (Appendix A). Having the motivation factors isolated and measured may allow resulting data to be used specifically in creating teacher recruitment programs based on the factors revealed as most relevant to the population.

The FIT-Choice Scale (Watt & Richardson, 2004) is amenable to this type of research as it is hard to measure personal preferences and motivations using a generalized

questionnaire pertaining to career decisions. These factors can be difficult to measure definitively without a specifically designed instrument. The rating scales allowed me to find patterns within the answers of various participants that show a common thread. When also laid out in conjunction with a solid plan based on expectancy-value theory, the FIT-Choice scale offers multiple insights into personal motivation and choice (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Instrument Validity and Reliability.

The FIT-Choice, as shown by Watt and Richardson (2007), had "construct validity and reliability across two independent samples." For this study, Watt and Richardson (2007) reported that Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates ranged from .62-.89, showing proper internal consistency. When based on a solid outlay, Watt and Richardson (2007) also found the scale useful for research in the area of reasons for entering the teaching field. The survey is undergirded by expectancy-value theory, which uses a person's inner values and his or her measures of personal achievement to make career choices (Watt and Richardson, 2007). Watt and Richardson (2007) further reported that this career decision encompasses four main areas: how much individuals will like the career (intrinsic), its benefit to them over time (utility), what they get out of it (attainment), and what they have to do to get it (cost) (Watt & Richardson, 2007).

Watt and Richardson (2007) used a "satisfaction with choice subscale" in their research with students considering entering teaching (p. 175). They were able to establish interrelated factors among the many participants to show patterns of preference for entering the teaching field. Patterns of preference, as discovered with the use of the FIT-Choice scale based on expectancy-value theory were considered by Watt and Richardson

(2007) as useful to organizations and groups involved in campaigns to recruit suitable candidates into teaching. Therefore, this instrument is ideal for discovering factors that influence both men and women to enter the teaching field. Because the work of Watt and Richardson (2007) focuses primarily on Australian students and teachers, the use of this instrument to measure motivational factors in American students—particularly North Carolina students—was most beneficial for the proposed outcomes of this study.

Variables

Independent variable. Gender was the independent variable in the study. I coded females as one in the data set and males as two in the data set. Gender was a nominal variable and served as the independent variable in all analyses.

Dependent variables. I measured the dependent variable *ability* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe they are strongly suited to teaching; low scores indicated participants' belief that they are not at all suited to teaching.

I measured the dependent variable *intrinsic career value* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants hold strong values in teaching; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching holds little to no importance.

I measured the dependent variable *fallback career* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants

believe teaching may very well be a second choice career; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching will not be a second choice career.

I measured the dependent *variable job security* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe teaching will be a strongly secure career choice; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching is not a strongly secure and reliable career.

I measured the dependent variable *time for family* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe teaching to be extremely amenable to raising a family; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching will have little to no flexibility for raising a family.

I measured the dependent variable *job transferability* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe that teaching will allow for great movement and transferability; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching affords little to no movement or transferability.

I measured the dependent variable *bludging* (an Australian colloquialism meaning to choose the easiest option) with two items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe that teaching will allow for lengthy holidays and short workdays; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching will allow little to no holiday time or shortened workdays.

I measured the dependent variable *shape future of children*/*adolescents* with two items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe that teaching would be a highly influential career; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching will afford little to no influence on young people.

I measured the dependent variable *enhance social equity* with two items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe that teaching affords strong opportunities to raise the ambitions of underprivileged youth; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching provides little to no opportunity to benefit the socially disadvantaged.

I measured the dependent variable *make social contribution* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants believe teaching affords opportunities make worthwhile contributions to society; low scores indicated participants' belief that teaching provides little to no opportunity to give back to society.

I measured the dependent variable work *with children/adolescents* with four items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants strongly prefer a working environment with children and adolescents; low

scores indicated that participants have little to no desire to work in an environment with children or adolescents.

I measured the dependent variable *prior teaching and learning experiences* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants report strong positive past experiences with teaching and learning; low scores indicated that participants reported strong negative past experiences with teaching and learning.

I measured the dependent variable *social influences* with three items on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from one (not at all important) to seven (extremely important). None of the items were reverse-scored. High scores indicated that participants had been strongly influenced by others to enter a teaching career; low scores indicated that participants have had little to no influence by others to enter a teaching career. The composite variable, addressed by the final research question, provided a comprehensive examination of the cross-sectional data.

Data Collection

Prior to conducting the data collection in this study, I obtained approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB). Once I obtained approval, I also sought final permission to conduct the study from the school district that was included in this study (Appendix E). After gaining all necessary approval, I sent a letter of invitation to prospective participants using the district's intra-district delivery system. The letter of invitation contained a brief background of the study, the purpose of the study, and the role of the participants in the study (Appendix B). The letter of invitation also contained a

link to the FIT-Choice (Watt and Richardson, 2004) survey (Appendix A) hosted through SurveyMonkey. In order to bolster the response rate, I included a token incentive ($1.00) with the letter of invitation. The letter of invitation stated clearly that the incentive could be kept whether the individual chose to participate in the survey or not. Using such an incentive may signal the "importance and legitimacy" of the study (Millar & Dillman, 2011). I contacted participants once per week with reminders to complete the study via an email message containing the link to the survey, and the survey link remained open for three weeks.

I conducted the study according to the guidelines outlined by Fink (2003), and I attached an informed consent form to the letter of invitation (Appendix C). The informed consent form included information on the nature, purpose, and benefits of the study and assured the participants that their information would remain confidential. Moreover, I asked the participants to read the informed consent form to ensure that they agreed to participate in the study. Only participants who agreed to participate in the study were directed to the FIT-Choice survey instrument (Watt & Richardson, 2004).

The data collected from the study was gathered from the FIT-Choice scale developed by Watt and Richardson (2004) for the specific purpose of examining the motivational factors underlying the decision to enter a teaching career. This study targeted individuals who teach in the southern feeder area of a large school district in eastern North Carolina. Follow up communication to remind participants to complete the survey was conducted via email (Appendix F). Millar and Dillman (2011) reported the benefit of using email contacts for Web surveys.

Data Analysis

After collecting all the data, I tabulated and entered all the data from participant responses into SPSS 19.0. I calculated the scores of the participants for the 13 motivation factors considered in this study based on the scoring guidelines of the FIT-Choice scale developed by Watt and Richardson (2007).

Prior to conducting the analysis, I tested the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance. I used Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) to assess normality. Skewness statistics ranging from -1 to 1 are considered normal (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Homogeneity of variance was evaluated using Levene's test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In instances where the data met the conditions of normality, I performed an independent samples *t*-test analysis since this is the appropriate statistical technique for normally distributed data. In all other instances, I used a non-parametric technique called Mann-Whitney U-test. The significance level for all hypothesis tests was set at .05.

Protection of Participants' Rights

I conducted this study with the highest regards to integrity and academic standards, using the standards and procedures established by Walden University. Before gathering any data, I obtained permission from the Walden University Institutional Review Board. Upon approval, the Institutional Review Board issued this study an identification number: 05-19-14-0122386.

The researcher is a teacher at a high school within the proposed school district in eastern North Carolina, but due to the anonymous nature of the data collection, the researcher had no information about the participants or their choice to participate in the study. Due to the web-based nature of the survey, participants maintained anonymity and were not asked to reveal any personal information.

The school district was also protected in that no names of schools or school districts were included in this study. The researcher had no contact with any of the participants other than submitting the study information via email.

Transition Statement

The use of the FIT-Choice (Watt & Richardson, 2004) provides a strong base to establish the essential factors that influence males to choose to enter the teaching profession. The effectiveness of these techniques is further enhanced by setting up the scale within the expectancy-value theory, as outlined by Watt and Richardson (2007) in their creation of the scale. This allows researchers to pinpoint specific common factors that have primary influence on teaching career choices. Without this type of framework, the research is disjointed and does not benefit those that need the information for recruitment efforts.

This instrument is determined to be appropriate for this type of research and has been used successfully in past studies of teachers and factors that influence their choice to enter the field. The past use and consistent validity and reliability shows this instrument's value for data collection and give incredible flexibility and depth to the researchers' efforts. That is why it has been chosen as the primary vehicle to be used in the current study.

Once the factors have been outlined, the organization or school attempting to recruit male teachers will have sufficient foundation for planning recruitment strategies. The important consideration is that the research needs to be ongoing as sociocultural attitudes continually change and evolve. With wider acceptance of men in the teaching profession, there must be new paths cut into this area to identify changing factors that

influence their decisions. This keeps practices current and helps illuminate how the situation has altered over time. Johnson (2008) called for this type of research study, stating, “A new, well informed, and comprehensive research agenda should be implemented in the United States with a focus on the subject of male teachers and the overall structural implications of gender in the teaching profession” (p. 10).

By expanding the research to include personal motivations and other external factors that influence the decisions of men to pursue teaching careers, schools and school districts can increase the chance of attracting them to the field. It also gives schools a realistic image of the perceptions that need to be changed to recruit more men and the strategies that can be used to recruit them. Changing outdated, false perceptions also changes how these organizations approach attracting male teachers. The focus goes, based on the research, to the individual’s real reasons for wanting to teach as opposed to assumptions based on societal stereotypes. For these reasons, the researcher has chosen to use the FIT-Choice Scale (Watt & Richardson, 2004) to conduct this study. Finding specific influencing factors that attract males to enter classrooms will add to current knowledge and shed light on old boundaries and stereotypes about teaching.

Section 4: Results

Introduction

The main objective of the study was to explore the motivating factors that influence individuals to consider pursuing teaching careers. Additionally, I designed the study to determine whether these factors are differentiated based on gender. In line with this, I invested fourteen research questions, namely:

1. What difference exists between the motivation factor of perceived *ability* to become a teacher between males and females?
2. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females?
3. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females?
4. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females?
5. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females?
6. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job transferability to become a teacher* between males and females?
7. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females?
8. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

9. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females?
10. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females?
11. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?
12. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females?
13. What difference exists between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females?
14. To what extent, if any, do motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males differ from motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females?

Description of the Sample

To address these queries, I considered male and female teachers in all grades K–12 in the southern feeder area of a school district in eastern North Carolina as the target population of the study. According to data from the North Carolina Public Schools Report Card (2012), the targeted feeder area employed 314 teachers. Males comprised 18% of this total; females comprised 82%. I distributed the FIT-Choice Survey to all 314 teachers, and 223 teachers responded. However, 18 individuals submitted the survey online without having answered the gender qualifying question, rendering their surveys inapplicable to this study. Of the remaining 205 surveys completed females submitted 170 and males submitted 35. Therefore 82.9 % of the final sample was female, and

17.1% was male. This gender makeup very closely aligned with the overall gender makeup of the total population for the school district being used for this study.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for all of the dependent variables are in Table 1.

Table 1
Means and Standard Deviations of Continuous Variables

Scales	*Min.*	*Max.*	*M*	*SD*
Perceived ability (RQ1)	5.00	21.00	18.23	2.52
Intrinsic career value (RQ2)	3.00	21.00	17.11	3.21
Fallback career (RQ3)	3.00	19.00	6.39	4.02
Job security (RQ4)	3.00	21.00	13.53	4.17
Time for family (RQ5)	3.00	21.00	13.00	4.71
Job transferability (RQ6)	3.00	21.00	10.25	4.71
Bludging (choosing an easy option) (RQ7)	2.00	14.00	6.36	3.07
Shape future of children/adolescents (RQ8)	2.00	14.00	12.27	2.05
Enhance social equity (RQ9)	2.00	14.00	11.57	2.32
Make social contribution (RQ10)	3.00	21.00	18.36	3.14
Work with children/adolescents (RQ11)	9.00	28.00	23.98	4.07
Prior teaching and learning experiences (RQ12)	3.00	21.00	17.40	3.72
Social influences (RQ13)	3.00	21.00	12.14	5.88
Motivation factors (RQ14)	104.00	235.00	180.60	26.59

Research Questions

RQ1: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *perceived ability* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H1_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *perceived ability* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H1_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *perceived ability* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 1, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *perceived ability* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *perceived ability* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *perceived ability* ($p = .705$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *perceived ability* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -0.533$, $p = .594$).

RQ2: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H2_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H2_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 2, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *intrinsic career value* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *intrinsic career value* ($p = .858$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *intrinsic career value* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -1.90$, $p = .058$).

RQ3: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H3_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become at teacher between males and females.

$H3_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 3, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *fallback career* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *fallback career* ($p = .658$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *fallback career* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -1.06$, $p = .289$).

RQ4: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H4_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H4_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 4, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *job security* (p = .002); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *job security* (p = .960); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *job security* to become a teacher for males and females (Z = -0.107, p = .915).

RQ5: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H5_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H5_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *time for family to become a teacher between* males and females.

To address Research Question 5, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *time for family* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *time for family* ($p = .702$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *time for family* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -1.95$, $p = .051$).

RQ6**:** What difference exists between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H6_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H6_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 6, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *job transferability* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did indicate significance for *job transferability* ($p = .030$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was not met for this variable. Because the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *job transferability* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -0.88$, $p = .381$).

RQ7**:** What difference exists between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females?

$H7_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females.

$H7_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* (choosing an easy option) to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 7, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *"bludging"* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *"bludging"* ($p = .681$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *"bludging"* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -0.86$, $p = .39$).

RQ8: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H8_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H8_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 8, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *shape future children/adolescents* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *shape future of children/adolescents* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *shape future of children/adolescents* ($p = .205$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *shape future of children/adolescents* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -0.94$, $p = .346$).

RQ9: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H9_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H9_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 9, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *enhance social equity* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *enhance social equity* ($p = .399$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *enhance social equity* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -0.55$, $p = .585$).

RQ10: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H10_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H10_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 10, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample *t* test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *make social contribution* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *make social contribution* ($p = .269$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *make social contribution* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -0.72$, $p = .473$).

RQ11: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H11_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H11_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 11, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *work with children/adolescents* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did indicate significance for *work with children/adolescents* ($p = .049$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was not met for this variable. Because the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were significant differences between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher for males and females ($Z = -3.00$, $p = .003$).

RQ12: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H12_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher males and females.

$H12_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 12, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of *prior teaching and learning experiences* to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *prior teaching and learning experiences* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *prior teaching and learning experiences* ($p = .492$); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *prior*

teaching and learning experiences to become a teacher for males and females (Z = -0.09, p = .925).

RQ13: What difference exists between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females?

$H13_0$: There will be no significant difference between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females.

$H13_A$: There will be a significant difference between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher between males and females.

To address Research Question 13, I planned to conduct an independent sample *t* test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factor of social influences to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample *t* test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS indicated significance for *social influences* ($p < .001$); thus, the assumption of normality was not met for this variable. I assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for *social influences* (p = .816); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable. Because the assumption of normality was not met for this variable, I conducted the nonparametric alternative, Mann Whitney U test, instead (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

Due to the nonparametric nature of the Mann-Whitney *U* test, none of the restrictive assumptions typically associated with a test of mean differences required assessment (Brace, Kemp, & Sneglar, 2006). Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test

indicated there were no significant differences between the motivation factor of *social influences* to become a teacher for males and females (Z = -0.51, p = .610).

RQ14: To what extent, if any, do motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males differ from motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females?

$H14_0$: There will be no significant difference between motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males and motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females.

$H14_A$: There will be a significant difference between motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males and motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females.

To address Research Question 14, I planned to conduct an independent sample t test to determine whether there are significant differences between the motivation factors to become a teacher for males and females.

Prior to analysis, I assessed the assumptions of the independent sample t test. I assessed normality using a one-sample Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test. The results of the KS did not indicate significance for motivation factors (p = .200); thus, the assumption of normality was met for this variable. I also assessed the assumption of homogeneity of variance using Levene's test. Results of Levene's test did not indicate significance for motivation factors (p = .668); thus, the assumption of equal variances was met for this variable.

Because the assumption of normality was met for this variable, the nonparametric alternative - Mann Whitney U test – was not conducted. Results of the independent sample t test indicated there were no statistically significant differences between the motivation factors to become a teacher for males and females (t (164) = 1.48, p = .141). Table 2 presents results of the independent sample t-test.

Table 2

Independent Sample t-test for Differences in Motivation Factors by Gender

Source	Mean		*t*	*p*
	Female	Male		
Motivation factors (RQ14)	181.91	173.54	1.48	.141

Summary and Conclusion

I designed this study to examine factors that influence or motivate individuals to become teachers and to determine if any differences exist in those factors between males and females. The FIT-Choice Survey measures 13 factors that may motivate individuals to become teachers, and I administered that survey to 314 teachers in the southern feeder area of a school district in eastern North Carolina. I received 223 responses, with 205 of those responses complete and viable for the analysis. Males comprised 18% of the respondents, and females comprised 82%, a balance very nearly matching the gender breakdown of the entire district.

After analyzing all the data from the surveys and examining each research question individually, I concluded that for all but one of the motivation factors, males and females revealed no significant difference in their responses. Research Question 11, measuring the motivation factor *work with children/adolescents*, was the only research question in which the analysis revealed a statistically significant difference between male and female respondents. In the discussion section of this study, I examine this motivation factor and discuss the significance of this result.

Additionally, Research Questions 2 and 5 approached significant differences between males and females. Those questions measured the motivation factors *intrinsic*

career value and *time for family*. I discuss the importance of those findings in the discussion section of this study.

Section 5: Discussions, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

In this final section, I summarize this doctoral research and discusses which factors encourage individuals to pursue K–12 teaching careers and whether these factors differ according to gender. Current literature has not yet sufficiently covered the motivations behind why men choose teaching as a profession. I begin by presenting an overview of the study and then restating the purpose and significance of the topic. Next, I enumerate the 14 research questions and their corresponding null and alternate hypotheses. Then, I discuss the results of the data analysis in relation to current research. Next, the implications of the results include individuals wishing to pursue a teaching career and educational leaders, as well as implications for positive social change. Finally, I will offer recommendations to expand the current study or generalize the results of future research study before making a conclusion.

North Carolina has been facing a shortage of male teachers in K–12 classrooms (Cornett & Gaines, 2002; Hines & Mathis, 2007) with males only comprising 20% of the total teaching population (Wood, 2012). The phenomenon is not just specific to eastern parts of North Carolina; state and national trends also echo the low percentage of male classroom teachers (Greene, 2011). Mullola et al. (2011) noted that males and females are driven by an intrinsic desire to teach, but extrinsic factors, such as low salaries (Cushman, 2007; Johnson, 2008; Washington, 2009) and lack of status (Johnson, 2008) also play a role, especially for men. Programs to attract males to teach have been instituted in response to this situation, but have been unsuccessful in creating a gender balance in the teaching profession (Cornett & Gaines, 2002; Hines & Mathis, 2007).

A gender balanced teaching force provides male and female students the opportunity to have strong positive role models (Skelton, 2009). Therefore, it becomes increasingly important for educational leadership to understand why individuals, particularly males, want to pursue teaching. A better understanding of these motivations would hopefully help in designing more effective recruitment programs. Current literature lacks empirical evidence on the perceptions men have of K-12 teaching and why they would like to be teachers. Also, existing studies developed programs to attract male teachers based solely on the lack of male teachers, not on data-driven factors that draw men to become teachers. I attempted to address this gap by exploring motivation factors that influence individuals to become teachers and examining differences, if any, between males and females. I designed the research questions to determine whether a significant difference existed between males and females for 13 motivation factors. These 13 motivation factors are:

1. ability,
2. intrinsic career value,
3. fallback career,
4. job security,
5. time for family,
6. job transferability,
7. "bludging," or the tendency to adopt the laziest approach or choosing an easy option,
8. shape future of children/adolescents,
9. enhance social equity,

10. make contribution,
11. work with children/adolescents,
12. prior teaching and learning experiences, and
13. social influences.

The 14 research question was a composite question designed to determine to what extent, if ever, do motivation factors (to become a teacher) of males differ from motivation factors (to become a teacher) of females. The null hypotheses of each research question stated that no significant difference existed in the motivation factors and the desire to become a teacher or no significant difference existed in motivation factors between males and females while the alternate hypotheses state otherwise. The study was grounded on the expectancy-value theory by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and used a quantitative, cross-sectional descriptive design. I collected data was collected through a survey instrument, namely, the FIT-Choice Scale developed by Watt and Richardson (2004). The FIT-Choice Scale was initially broken down to three factors: (a) influential factors, (b) beliefs about teaching, and (c) an individual's decision to become a teacher. However, for the purposes of this study, I only used influential factors.

The entire population in the targeted feeder area consisted of 314 teachers, 18% of which were males while 82% were females. Out of the total, I obtained 223 FIT-Choice scale results from Survey Monkey or a response rate of 71%. From those initial responses, I used 205 respondents. A small portion of participants did not answer the gender indicator question, rendering their responses unviable for this study. Of the 205 respondents used, males comprised 18% and females comprised 82%, a gender balance

that very closely resembles the overall gender balance of the entire school district's teaching population.

I tested the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance prior to conducting the analysis. I used Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) to assess normality. Skewness statistics ranging from -1 to 1 are considered normal (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). I evaluated homogeneity of variance using Levene's test (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In instances where a non-significant outcome indicated the assumption was met (i.e., the variance of the two groups was the same) I performed an independent samples *t*-test analysis. Independent samples t-test is the appropriate statistical technique for normally distributed data. In all other instances, I used a non-parametric technique called Mann-Whitney U-test. The significance level for all hypothesis tests was set at .05.

The study made one assumption about the participants and two about the quality of the responses to generate more credible results. I assumed that participants represented the experiences of all teachers of similar populations. Therefore, the results of this study may be applicable to teachers who share the same circumstances as teachers from eastern North Carolina. On the quality of the responses, I accepted the assumption that all participants to respond honestly and to the best of their abilities. This assumption increased the chances that the responses were relevant to achieving the objectives of this study. Furthermore, it was assumed that the participants fully understood each question in the survey instrument, thus ensuring that the participants accurately interpreted the meaning and intent of the inquiry.

Interpretation of the Findings

After analyzing all the data from the surveys and examining each research question individually, I concluded that for all but one of the motivation factors, males and females revealed no significant difference in their responses. Results of the independent sample *t* test indicated there were no statistically significant differences between most of the motivation factors to become a teacher for males and females. Research question 11, measuring the motivation factor *work with children/adolescents*, was the only research question in which the analysis revealed a statistically significant difference between male and female respondents. Results of the Mann-Whitney *U* test indicated there were significant differences between the motivation factor of *work with children/adolescents* to become a teacher for males and females. Motivation was much higher for females than for males.

Additionally, Research Questions 2 and 5, measuring for the motivation factors *intrinsic career value* and *time for family*, resulted in nearly significant differences. While not statistically significant, these findings do indicates that those are motivation factors which males and females regard with different importance.

The findings of the study provided empirical evidence on the factors that males and females consider when deciding to become a teacher. Several studies opine that the numbers of male teachers are decreasing because the strides made by women in education came at the expense of their male peers (Johnson, 2008). Additionally, Johnson (2008) noted that having a male teacher is beneficial for boys because boys need a strong positive role model while Jones (2006) stated that more male teachers would bring balance to schools since it is a better reflection of the composition of greater society. Other researchers have attributed the lack of male teachers to low salaries compared to

other professions that require advanced degrees and educational investment as well as perceived low prestige (Cushman, 2007; Johnson, 2008; Washington, 2009).

Child abuse allegations are another issue that pervades the literature. The narratives of men who teach young children describe how they must be sensitive to any semblance of indiscretion, which adds to job stress and often prevents them from providing young children with the same quality of education as provided by female teachers (Carrington, 2002; Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005). The results do not support as the literature indicates that male teachers have been negatively affected because of the strides made by women or by low salaries. Because females showed to be much more motivated to work with children or adolescents and men less motivated to do so, the results may indicate that there is some cultural pattern or phenomena at work that makes men less motivated to work with children or adolescents.

The theory of expectancy-value stated that individuals develop attitudes based on assessments about values and beliefs (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The three stages of the expectancy-value model could also be related to the findings of the study as an application of the theoretical construct. The first stage involves that acquisition of information about teaching. The factors such as shaping the future of children or adolescents and social contribution are not innate in nature and would be born from the experiences of potential teachers as they progress in their careers. It is also possible that the affinity for teaching surfaces when an individual is still a student and considers "paying it forward" by becoming a teacher. A more direct way of acquiring information

about teaching would be teaching-related training. This could become important by influencing the potential educator's ability to teach. Experiences that would make people desire working with children, particularly for women, would be also great opportunities to acquire knowledge to help people decide to become teachers. The acquisition of this knowledge is reflected in the results because women show a higher motivation to work with adolescents and children.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of the study was that it was not able to assess the concept of teaching as an extension of mothering. This could be related to the difference in male and female responses to questions measuring the motivation factor for *work with children/adolescents.* The main issue noted by authors such as Drudy (2008), Smith (2004), and Washington (2009) was that Western society views teaching as woman's work and thus helps explain the gender inequality. Johnson (2008) attributed this view to marketing during the Industrial Revolution to meet the demand for teachers. Teaching, especially for early childhood education, was seen to be an extension of mothering (Cushman, 2005; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005; Skelton, 2003, 2009). Meanwhile, males are more likely to be fit for administrators of primary schools rather than teachers (Skelton, 2003). The factor in the survey that might be related to this view is working with children, though wanting to work with children does not necessarily mean that one is becoming a mother. Interestingly, however, the only significant difference determined by the study was the working with children factor where women gave a higher mean score. Thus, women generally viewed working with children as more

attractive than men, but that does not automatically imply that the respondents agreed that teaching is motherly in nature.

Another limitation was that the survey did not delve into the issue of child abuse allegations that current literature noted as another barrier for individuals to enter the teaching profession (Carrington, 2002; Cooney & Bittner, 2001; Foster & Newman, 2005; Sargent, 2004, 2005). This issue adds additional stress to the job with males even being told not to touch children and being reprimanded if they do (Sargent, 2004). Jones (2007) further found that male teachers know that they were under scrutiny as potential sexual predators. The dilemma that males have in teaching could be better explained by Sargent (2005), that men who exhibit normal masculinity may be perceived as incompetent in caring for children or dangerous, while men who display any sign of femininity may be interpreted as gay and possibly, pedophiles.

Chapter 1 presented three limitations of the study that were considered during the entire study process. All of the limitations were related to the respondents. For the first limitation, the researcher noted that only those who respond to and chose to be part of the study would be considered. Prospective participants were sent letters of invitation using the district's intra-district delivery system. The letter of invitation included a token incentive that was effective in achieving a response rate of approximately 70%, with 223 teachers responding. After eliminating responses that did not answer the gender differential question, the remaining respondents were 82% female and 18% male. The second limitation pertained to researcher bias. Since the researcher is a teacher in North Carolina, it was possible that some of the participants had personal relationships with the researcher. In order to circumvent this concern, all participants were made anonymous.

Furthermore, the researcher indicated in all communication sent out to the participants that the study shall be separate and distinct from her role as a teacher. The third and final limitation was the inability to generalize results. Although current literature supported that the experiences of a sample population of teaching professionals may represent the entire population across the globe, a school's unique climate and culture may provide significant influences that may alter the factors that encourage individuals to teach. The study addressed this concern by assuming that the results may only be applicable to similar populations of teachers. Suggested ways to improve the plausibility of generalized results shall be discussed during the recommendations.

Implications for Social Change

The results of the study may be used by school district officials and even building-level educators in developing programs and strategies to encourage more males to enter the teaching profession. The empirical tests showed that males and females generally do not differ drastically in terms of the influential factors that motivate them to become teachers, with the exception of the factor of *working with children/adolescents*. The literature review provided several innovative recruiting programs such as Troops to Teachers, Call Me MISTER, and the National Teach Campaign. However, the finding of a lack of difference in nearly all the influential factors is extremely important because it provides information that current programs do not target the cause of why men are not as motivated to work with children or adolescents. Programs could challenge gender stereotypes and appeal to how males would be able to shape the future of children or adolescents and contribute socially by becoming teachers.

For example, flyers and posters in high schools, colleges and universities should invite males to become teachers inspired by the idea that male teachers are needed by society and individuals that have the affinity for teaching should do their part in contributing to future generations, thus building on the idea of Sargent (2005).

Additionally, male students could be influenced to pursue a teaching profession through student-teacher programs and peer tutoring or mentoring. Current teachers should always be on the lookout for male students who might have the affinity for teaching. Once it is determined that a student has demonstrated an affinity for teaching or has talents and strengths related to teaching, the student may be invited to become a peer tutor. Concurrently, qualified students may be given a week in a regular school calendar to become teachers and administrators in their school. Of course, this would be under direct supervision by their teachers. Giving the students the chance to impart their knowledge to other students in need could spark the desire to become a teacher.

Educational leaders and state legislators could also use the findings to improve job conditions of teachers to encourage more males to enter the field and promote equality of treatment of both male and female teachers. The ability to teach was one of the factors that had a high mean score. Armed with this knowledge, leaders and legislators could institute free teacher training programs to provide teaching basics for males who might be interested in pursuing a teaching career. Providing males with enough knowledge on how to handle a classroom as well as how to handle children could hopefully build their confidence to become a teacher.. Educational leaders and state legislators have a direct impact on the job security of a teacher by providing the necessary employment policies and benefits to protect teachers from discrimination.

Achieving this involves a cohesive effort between the state and the educational institution.

Recommendations for Action and Further Study

The scope and limitations of the study have been focused on male and female teachers in the southern feeder area of a school district in eastern North Carolina. It would be insightful for future researchers to widen the scope of the study, analyze individuals from other states, or change the composition of the participants to contribute to the understanding of why males and females choose to be teachers. At this point, the researcher would like to recommend the following expansions or topics:

1. Examine a broader group of teachers across various geographic locations. As previously stated, the applicability of these results may only be on populations that are similar to the teachers in eastern North Carolina. It would be interesting to determine what specific factors teachers look into from other states or from other countries.
2. Supplement results by a qualitative analysis of the experiences of male teachers and why they would like to become teachers. The empirical analysis of this study showed that males and females generally had no difference on the factors based on the FIT-Choice Scale that motivated them to teach. Added insights could be gained by interviewing male teachers and asking them directly what made them become teachers and what they think are barriers for more male teachers to enter the teaching field.

3. Analyze data collected from other assessment tools besides the FIT-Choice survey.. The study provided introductory empirical research on the understanding of the factors behind males becoming teachers. Further research is suggested to try other survey forms or to create a survey form specifically for the purpose of understanding the factors behind the motivation to teach. The results of this study should be corroborated by peer research to provide enough statistical credence.
4. Data could also be gathered from male teachers who left the teaching profession on the reasons why they left. The findings of this research would be important to understand the opposite side of the spectrum or the factors that males consider when they decide to leave the profession.
5. Include measures to determine whether teachers view teaching as a female role and whether male teachers are generally perceived as sexual predators in negatively in the survey instrument. As previously discussed, these two issues were causes noted in current literature that helps explain why males do not enter or leave the teaching profession.

Summary and Conclusion

In conclusion, the results of the study found out that generally, no difference existed between the influential factors of male and female teachers in a southern feeder school district in eastern North Carolina. The only significant difference was that women tended to put more value on working with children or adolescents as compared with men, highlighting the cultural roles of women in caring and nurturing. The lack of difference is congruent with most of the findings in current literature and underscores the challenges that educational recruiters have in inviting males to the teaching profession. Based solely

on the results of this study, a specific program targeting males would not be effective. Rather, programs should focus on how males would be able to contribute the educational community. Additionally, males with the knack and patience for teaching should be encouraged to participate in teacher training to influence the decision to become educators. Further research on the topic is recommended to examine a broader set of teachers—particularly male teachers-- across various geographic locations. It would also be beneficial to obtain qualitative data on males' experiences with regard to deciding to become a teacher. Also, other survey forms could be used to supplement the results that should include measures to understand the factors behind why males choose to leave the teaching profession.

Developing a teaching force that promotes gender equality provides students with strong, positive role models (Skelton, 2009). Despite the low and declining population of men in teaching, especially at the elementary school level, policymakers, school programs, school administrators, and fellow teachers can make changes to balance this gap in the education community (Wood, 2012). The present study fills this information gap on why men are not as attracted to the teaching profession and mending this gap might mean further investigation into why men are not as motivated to work with children or adolescents. Despite government policies that have been enacted to increase the numbers of male teachers, a better understanding of the problem could aid recruitment initiatives and cultural gender stereotypes (Sargent, 2005; Skelton, 2009).

References

Abu-Ghaida, D., & Klasen, S. (2004). The costs of missing: The millennium development goal on gender equity. *World Development*, *32*(7), 1075–1107. doi:10.1016/j.worlddev.2004.02.003

Anderson, S. E. (2008). *Teacher career choices: Timing of teacher careers among 1992-1993 bachelor's degree recipients.* Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.

Aud, S., Fox, M., & KewalRamani, A. (2010). Status and trends in the education of racial and ethnic groups (NCES 2010-015). *US Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics*. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2010/2010015.pdf

Berry, B. (2009). The strategic management of human capital: Making the smart investments in teachers and principals. *Center for Teaching Quality*. 1–11 Retrieved from http://beta.teachingquality.org/sites/default/files/The%20Strategic%20Management%20of%20Human%20Capital%20Making%20the%20Smart%20Investments%20in%20Teachers%20and%20Principals.pdf

Bloom, B., Cohen R. A., & Freeman, G. (2009) Summary health statistics for U.S. children: National health interview survey, 2007. *Vital Health Stat, 10*(239), 1–80. Retrieved from http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19326838

Brace, N., Kemp, R., & Snelgar, R. (2006). *SPSS for psychologists* (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publisher.

Bricheno, P., & Thornton, M. (2007). Role model, hero or champion? Children's views concerning role models. *Educational Research, 49*, 287–303. doi:10.1080/00131880701717230

Bunch, C. (1990). Women's rights as human rights: Toward a re-vision of human rights. *Human Rights Quarterly*, *12*(4), 486–498. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/762496

Carnoy, M. (2000). Globalization and educational reform. *Globalization and education: Integration and contestation across cultures*, 43–61. Retrieved from http://www.unesco.org/iiep

Carrell, M. R., Mann, E. E., & Tracey, H. S. (2006). Defining workforce diversity programs and practices in organizations: A longitudinal study. *Labor Law Journal, 57*(1), 5–12.

Carrington, B. (2002). A quintessentially feminine domain? Student teachers' constructions of primary teaching as a career. *Educational Studies, 28,* 287–303. doi:10.1080/0305569022000003735

Carrington, B., Tymms, P., & Merrell, C. (2008). Role models, school improvement and the "gender gap"—Do men bring out the best in boys and women the best in girls? *British Educational Research Journal, 34,* 315–327. doi:10.1080/01411920701532202

Chmelynski, C. (2006). Getting more black men and blacks into teaching. *Education Digest: Essential Readings Condensed for Quick Review, 71*(5), 40–42. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=EJ740993

Clotfelter, C., Glennie, E., Ladd, H., & Vigdor, J. (2008). Would higher salaries keep teachers in high-poverty schools? Evidence from a policy intervention in North Carolina. *Journal of Public Economics*, *92*(5), 1352–1370. doi:10.1016/j.jpubeco.2007.07.003

Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K. M. (2005). Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education. *Lawrence Erlbaum Associates*. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED493809

.Cooney, M. H., & Bittner, M. T. (2001). Men in early childhood education: Their emergent issues. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 29*(2), 77–82. doi:10.1023/A:1012564610349

Cornett, L., & Gaines, G. (2002). Quality teaching: Can incentive policies make a difference? *Southern Regional Education Board*, *404*, 1-23. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED464085

Could, E. (2006). *Troops-to-teachers program brings more men and minorities to the teaching* (GAO-06-265). Retrieved from http://www.gao.gov/cgi-bin/getrpt?GAO-06-265

Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson/Merrill Education.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cushman, P. (2005). It's just not a real bloke's job: Male teachers in the primary school. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 33,* 321–338. doi:10.1080/13598660500286176

Cushman, P. (2007). The male teacher shortage: A synthesis of research and worldwide strategies for addressing the shortage. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy, 4,* 79–98. Retrieved from http://eng.kedi.re.kr/upload_data/kedi_jrn/07_Maleteacher.pdf

Darling-Hammond, L. (2008). A future worthy of teaching for America. *Phi Delta Kappa, 89,* 730-736. doi:10.1177/003172170808901008

Darling-Hammond, L., & Haselkorn, D. (2009). Reforming teaching: Are we missing the boat. *Education Week*, *28*(27), 36–30.Retrieved from http://cateachercorps.org/downloads/reforming_teaching education_week_april_1_2009.pdf

Dee, T. S. (2006, Fall). The why chromosome. *Education Next: A Journal of Opinion and Research*. Retrieved from http://www.hoover.org/publications/ednext/285842.html

Driessen, G. (2007). The feminization of primary education: Effects of teachers' sex on pupil achievement, attitudes and behaviour. *Review of Education, 53,* 183–203. doi:10.1007/s11159-007-9039-y

Drudy, S. (2008). Gender balance/gender bias: The teaching profession and the impact of feminization. *Gender and Education, 20,* 309–323. doi:10.1080/0954025080219056

Ehrenberg, R. G., Goldhaber, D. D., & Brewer, D. J. (1995). Do teachers' race, gender, and ethnicity matter? Evidence from the National Educational Longitudinal Study

of 1988. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 48,* 547–561. Retrieved from http://www.nber.org/papers/w4669

Ecklof, H. (2006). Development and validation of scores from an instrument measuring student test-taking motivation. *Educational & Psychological Measurement*, 66, 643–656. doi:10.1177/0013164405278574

Erdfelder, E., Faul, F., & Buchner, A. (1996). GPOWER: A general power analysis program. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *28*(1), 1–11. doi:10.3758/BF03203630

Everton, T., Turner, P., Hargreaves, L., & Pell, T. (2007). Public perceptions of the teaching profession. *Research Papers in Education*, *22*(3), 247–265. doi:10.1080/02671520701497548

Feistritzer, C. E. (2005). Profile of alternate route teachers. *National Center for Education Information*. Retrieved from http://www.clamu.ncei.com/PART.pdf

Feistritzer, C. E., & Haar, C. K. (2010). *Research on alternate routes education research.* Washington, DC: National Center for Alternative Certification.

Fink, A. (Ed.). (2003). *How to report on surveys* (Vol. 10). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude intention, and behavior: an introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Francis, B., Skelton, C., Carrington, B., Hutchings, M., Read, B., & Hall, I. (2008). A perfect match? Pupils' and teachers' views of the impact of matching educators and learners by gender. *Research Papers in Education, 23,* 21–36. doi:10.1080/02671520701692510

Foster, T., & Newman, E. (2005). Just a knock back? Identity bruising on the route to becoming a male primary teacher. *Teachers and Teaching, 11,* 341–358. doi:10.1080/13450600500137091

Fontanilla, L. M. (2003). *Cultural diversity training programs: Their impact on organizational culture and individual behavior* (Doctoral dissertation). St. La Verne, CA: University of La Verne.

Gosse, D., Parr, M., & Allison, J. (2008). Researching the halted paths of male primary school teacher candidates. *Journal of Men's Studies, 16,* 57–68. doi:10.3149/jms.1601.57

Greene, A. (2011, September 17). Male teachers are a rarity in classrooms. *Wilmington Star News*. Retrieved from http://www.starnewsonline.com/article/20110917/articles/110919769#gsc.tab=0

Guarino, C. M., Santibanez, L., & Daley, G. A. (2006). Teacher recruitment and retention: A review of the recent empirical literature. *Review of Educational Research*, *76*(2), 173–208. doi:10.3102/0034654307600217

Hewes, D. (2005). Maintaining the median in early childhood educational methodology. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, *26*(2), 157-169. doi:10.1080/10901020590955789

Hines, D., & Mathis, K. (2007). *Regional specific incentives for teacher recruitment and retention.* Retrieved from http://www.dpi.state.nc.us/docs/internresearch/reports/incentives-trr.pdf

Holsendolph, E. (2007). Each one, teach one. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education, 24*(9), 12-15. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/194233525?accountid=14872

Hoobler, J. M., & Nancy, B. J. (2004). An analysis of current human resource management publications. *Personnel Review,33*(5), 665-676. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/214798510?accountid=14872

Hubbard, E. E. (2004). *The diversity scorecard: Evaluating the impact of diversity on organizational performance*. Burlington, MA: Routledge.

Hutchings, M., Carrington, B., Francis, B., Skelton, C., Read, B., & Hall, I. (2008). Nice and kind, smart and funny: What children like and want to emulate in their teachers. *Oxford Review of Education, 34,* 135-157. doi:10.1080/03054980701663959

Inman, D., & Marlow, L. (2004). Teacher retention: Why do beginning teachers remain in the profession? *Education, 124,* 605-614. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=EJ705767

Jackson, Z. V., Wright, S. L., & Perrone-McGovern, K. M. (2010). Work-family interface for men in nontraditional careers. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, *47*(4), 157-166. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=EJ913536

Jackson, T. O., Boutte, G. S., & Wilson, B. S. (2013). Double-talking: The complexities surrounding Black male teachers as both problems and solutions. *Advances in Race and Ethnicity in Education*, *1*, 117-131. Retrieved from http://www.emeraldinsight.com/books.htm?chapterid=17085569

Jacobsen, L. A., & Mather, M. (2010). *US economic and social trends since 2000*. *Population Reference Bureau*, *65*(1), 1-20. Retrieved from http://prb.org/pdf10/65.1unitedstates.pdf

Jones, D. (2003). The "right kind of man": The ambiguities of regendering the early years school environment--The case of England and Wales. *Early Child Development and Care, 173*(6), 565-575. Retrieved from http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/0300443032000178627

Jones, D. (2006). The "right kind of man": The ambiguities of regendering the key stage one environment. *Sex Education, 6,* 61-76. doi:10.1080/14681810500508675

Jones, D. (2007). Millennium man: Constructing identities of male teachers in early years contexts. *Education Review, 59,* 179-194. doi:10.1080/00131910701254973

Johnson, S. (2008). The status of male teachers in public education today. *Center for Evaluation and Education Policy: Education Policy Brief*, 6, 1-12. Retrieved from http://www.ceep.indiana.edu

Kardam, N. (2004). The emerging global gender equality regime from neoliberal and constructivist perspectives in international relations. *International Feminist Journal of Politics*, *6*(1), 85-109. Retrieved from http://works.bepress.com/nuket_kardam/18

Kilinc, A., & Mahiroglu, A. (2009). The attractors of teaching biology: A perspective from a Turkish context. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *34*(5), 2. Retrieved from http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol34/iss5/2/

Kravitz, D. A., & Platania, J. (1993). Attitudes and beliefs about affirmative action: Effects of target and of respondent sex and ethnicity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *78*(6), 928. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.78.6.928

Leech, N. L., Barrett, K. C., & Morgan, G.A. (2005). SPSS for intermediate statistics: Use and interpretation (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2005). *Practical research: Planning and design* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. Retrieved from http://www2.webster.edu/kc/1112/syllabi/fall2/MNGT6000-Craig-F2-11.pdf

Lerner, P. K., & Zittleman, K. (2002). Career changers: Women (and men) who switch to teaching. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED466452

Levine, A. (2006). *Educating school teachers*. Washington, DC: Education Schools Project.

Linnehan, F., & Konrad, A. M. (1999). Diluting diversity implications for intergroup inequality in organizations. *Journal of management inquiry*, *8*(4), 399-414. doi:10.1177/105649269984009

Lynn, M. (2006). Dancing between two worlds: A portrait of the life of a black male teacher in South Central LA. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education, 19,* 221-242. doi:10.1080/09518390600576111

Maher, M., & Sztajn, P. (2013, November 6). Fallacies, realities about teachers and education schools. Retrieved from

http://www.newsobserver.com/2013/11/06/3346796/fallacies-realities-about-teachers.html.

Markow, D., Cooper, M., & Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. (2008). *The MetLife survey of the American teacher: Past, present and future*. New York, N.Y.: MetLife.

Marsh, H. W., Martin, A. J., & Cheng, J. H. S. (2008). A multilevel perspective on gender in classroom motivation and climate: Potential benefits of male teachers for boys? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 100,* 78-95. doi:10.1037/0022-0663.100.1.78

McCracken, J. (2010). Serving the public: Gender, sexuality, and race at the margins. doi:10.1207/s15327892mcp0602_2

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education* (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.

Millar, M. M., & Dillman, D. A. (2011). Improving response to web and mixed-mode surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *75*(2), 249-269. doi:10.1093/poq/nfr003

Montecinos, C., & Nielsen, L. E. (2004). Male elementary preservice teachers' gendering of teaching. *Multicultural Perspectives, 6*(2), 3-9. doi:10.1207/s15327892mcp0602_2

Mullola, S., Ravaja, N., Lipsanen, J., Alatupa, S., Hintsanen, M., Jokela, M., & Keltikangas-Jarvinen, L. (2011). Associations of student temperament and educational competence with academic achievement: The role of teacher age and teacher and student gender. *Teaching & Teaching Education, 27*(5), 942-951.

Murnane, R. J., & Papay, J. P. (2010). Teachers' views on no child left behind: Support for the principles, concerns about the practices. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *24*(3), 151-166. doi;10.1257/jep.24.3.151

National Education Association. (2001). Status of the American public school teacher. *National Education Association*. Retrieved from http://www.nea.org/assets/img/content/statushighlights.pdf

NC School Report Cards. (2012). Percentage of classroom teachers by demographic group. Retrieved from http://www.ncreportcards.org/src/distDetails.jsp?Page=16&pLEACode=260&pYear=2011-2012&pDataType=1

Nelson, B. G. (2002). *The importance of men teachers and reasons why there are so few.* Minneapolis, MN: Men Teach.

Nkomo, S. M., & Cox, T. H. (1996). Diverse identities in organizations. London, England: Sage Publications.

Park, E. (2013, October 31). *Legislative cuts forcing teachers out of the classroom.* Retrieved from http://www.wncn.com/story/23843751/legislative-cuts-forcing-teachers-out-of-the-classroom.

Priyadharshini, E., & Robinson-Pant, A. (2003). The attractions of teaching: An investigation into why people change careers to teach. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 29,* 95-112. doi:10.1080/0260747093200009263 9

Richard, A. (2005, October). Heeding the call. *Education Week,* 23-26. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=EJ759572

Richardson, P. W., & Watt, H. M. G. (2006). Who chooses teaching and why? Profiling characteristics and motivations across three Australian universities. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 34,* 27-56. doi:10.1080/13598660500480290

Roberson, Q. M. (2006). Disentangling the meanings of diversity and inclusion in organizations. *Group & Organization Management*, *31*(2), 212-236. doi:10.1177/1059601104273064

Rogers-Ard, R., Knaus, C. B., Epstein, K. K., & Mayfield, K. (2013). Racial diversity sounds nice; Systems transformation? Not so much developing urban teachers of color. *Urban Education*, *48*(3), 451-479. doi:10.1177/0042085912454441

Roulston, K., & Misawa, M. (2011). Music teachers' constructions of gender in elementary education. *Music Education Research*, *13*(1), 3-28. doi:10.1080/14613808.2011.553275

Sargent, P. (2005). The gendering of men in early childhood education. *Sex Roles, 52,* 251-259. doi:10.1007/s11199-005-1300-x

Sargent, P. (2004). Between a rock and a hard place: Men caught in the gender bind of early childhood education. *Journal of Men's Studies, 12,* 173-192. doi:10.3149/jms.1203.173

Scissons, K. (2009). *Reducing the rate of teacher attrition through effective mentorship programs*. Retrieved from http://d-commons.d.umn.edu/handle/10792/372

Skelton, C. (2009). Failing to get men into primary teaching: A feminist critique. *Journal of Education Policy*, *24*(1), 39-54. doi:10.1080/02680930802412677

Skelton, C. (2003). Male primary teachers and perceptions of masculinity. *Education Review, 55,* 195-209. doi:10.1080/0013191032000072227

Smedley, S. (2007). Learning to be a primary school teacher: Reading one man's story. *Gender and Education, 19,* 369-385. doi:10.1080/09540250701295510

Smith, J. (2004). *Male primary teachers: Disadvantaged or advantaged?* Paper presented at the Australian Association for Research in Education Conference, Melbourne, Australia.

Sokal, L., Katz, H., Chasrzewski, L., & Wojcik, C. (2007). Good-bye Mr. Chips: Male teacher shortages and boys' reading achievement. *Sex Roles, 56,* 651-659. doi:10.1007/s11199-007-9206-4

Sokal, L., & Katz, H. (2008). Effects of technology and male teachers on boys' reading. *Australian Journal of Education, 52,* 81-94. doi:10.1177/000494410805200106

Spector, J.M., Merrill, M.D., Elen, J., & Bishop, M.J. (Eds.). (2001). *Handbook of research for educational communications and technology.* Bloomington, IN: The Association for Educational Communications and Technology.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Experimental designs using ANOVA*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/Brooks/Cole.

Thornton, M. (1999). Reducing wastage among men student teachers in primary courses: A male club approach. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 25,* 41-53. doi:10.1080/02607479919664

Thornton, M., & Bricheno, P. (2008). Entrances and exits: changing perceptions of primary teaching as a career for men. *Early Child Development and Care*, *178*(7-8), 717-731. doi:10.1080/03004430802352087

Tye, B. B., & O'Brien, L. (2002). Why are experienced teachers leaving the profession? *Phi Delta Kappa, 84,* 24-32. Retrieved from http://www.kappanmagazine.org/content/84/1/24.short

U.S. Census Bureau. (2007, March 27). Single-parent households. *U.S. Census Bureau Newsroom*. Retrieved from http://www.census.gov/Press-Release/www/releases/archives/families_households

U.S. Department of Education. (2008) National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), *Public School Teacher Data File*. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/sass/tables/sass0708_2009324_t1s_03.asp

Vanneman, A., Hamilton, L., Anderson, J. B., & Rahman, T. (2009). Achievement gaps: How black and white students in public schools perform in mathematics and reading on the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Statistical Analysis Report. NCES 2009-455. *National Center for Education Statistics*. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED505903

Wadsworth, D. (2001, May). Why new teachers choose to teach. *Educational Leadership,* 24-28. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=EJ637137

Washington, V. (2009). Needed in school teaching: A few good men. *New England Journal of Higher Education*, *23*(5), 18-19. Retrieved from http://www.meta.getelvis.com

Watt, H. M. G., & Richardson, P. W. (2007). Motivational factors influencing teaching as a career choice: Development and validation of the FIT-Choice scale. *Journal of Experimental Education, 75,* 167-202. doi:10.3200/JEXE.75.3.167-202

William, G. S. (2003). The changing definition of workplace diversity. *Black Collegian*, *33*(2), 53. Retrieved from http://elibrary.ru/item.asp?id=7619800

Wood, T. D. (2012). Teacher perceptions of gender-based differences among elementary school teachers. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education, 4*(2), 317-345.

Zeringo, T. A., & Baldwin-LeClair, J. (2001). *The paucity of male elementary school teachers: Disciminatory hiring practices and other contributing factors.* Presented at the Tenth Annual Law Related Education Conference, New Jersey State Bar Foundation, New Brunswick, New Jersey. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED452119

Appendix A: FIT-Choice Scale (Factors Influencing Teaching Choice Scale)

For each statement below, please rate how important it was in **YOUR** decision to become a teacher,
from 1 (not at all important in your decision)
to 7 (extremely important in your decision).

Please select the number that **best** describes the importance of each:

"I chose to become a teacher because…"

1. I am interested in teaching
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Part-time teaching could allow more family time
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. My friends think I should become a teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. As a teacher I will have lengthy holidays
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I have the qualities of a good teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Teaching allows me to provide a service to society
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. I've always wanted to be a teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Teaching will be a useful job for me to have when travelling
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Teaching will allow me to shape child/adolescent values
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. I want to help children/adolescents learn
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. I was unsure of what career I wanted
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. I like teaching
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. I want a job that involves working with children/adolescents
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. Teaching will offer a steady career path
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Teaching hours will fit with the responsibilities of having a family
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. I have had inspirational teachers
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. As a teacher I will have a short working day
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. I have good teaching skills
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Teachers make a worthwhile social contribution
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. A teaching certification is recognized everywhere.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. Teaching will allow me to influence the next generation
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. My family thinks I should become a teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. I want to work in a child/adolescent-centered environment
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. Teaching will provide a reliable income
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. School holidays will fit in with family commitments
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. I have had good teachers as role-models
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. Teaching will enable me to 'give back' to society
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. I was not accepted into my first-choice career
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Teaching will allow me to raise the ambitions of underprivileged youth
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

30. I like working with children/adolescents
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

31. Teaching will be a secure job
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

32. I have had positive learning experiences
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

33. People I've worked with think I should become a teacher
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

34. Teaching is a career suited to my abilities
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

35. A teaching job will allow me to choose where I wish to live
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

36. I chose teaching as a last-resort career
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

37. Teaching will allow me to benefit the socially disadvantaged
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

For information about this work, please contact Helen M. G. Watt and Paul W. Richardson.
Helen Watt, School of Education, University of Michigan, 610 East University #4204D, Ann Arbor MI 48109-1259 USA. Tel: (+1 734) 647-1082, Fax: (+1 734) 936-1606, Email: hwatt@umich.edu. Paul Richardson, Faculty of Education, Monash University, Clayton Campus, Melbourne VIC 3800, Australia. Tel: (+61 3) 9905-2771, Fax: (+61 3) 9905-5400, Email: paul.richardson@education.monash.edu.au

Appendix B: Letter of Invitation

Dear Teacher,

My name is Sharon Wilkins Finkler, a teacher at Gray's Creek High School and a doctoral candidate of the School of Education at Walden University. I am conducting my doctoral research which will examine factors that influence individuals to become teachers and determine any differences between males and females regarding those factors. The purpose of the study is to compare the motivation factors of male and female teachers.

You are being asked to participate in this research by completing a questionnaire. Completing the survey should take no longer than about 10 minutes. Please know that you are not required to participate and that if you choose to take part, you may cease participation once you begin or omit items that you are not comfortable answering. Your answers will remain completely confidential, and the entire process is entirely anonymous.

The results of this study will offer awareness and insight into reported factors that influence males and females to become teachers specific to North Carolina. The results of this study may assist in developing programs and improvements that could motivate individuals to become teachers.

Details of the study with a consent agreement are attached, including a link to the survey website. Should you have any questions for concerns, please feel free to contact me by email sharonfinkler@ccs.k12.nc.us or by phone 910-723-7546.

I am including a small gift as an incentive for you to complete the survey. Allow this to serve as my thank you in advance for helping me with this project. Should you choose not to participate, please keep the gift as a token of appreciation for what you do each day for our students.

Sincerely Yours,

Sharon Wilkins Finkler
Doctoral Candidate
Walden University

Appendix C: Informed Consent Agreement

CONSENT FORM

You are invited to take part in a research study of the factors that influence individuals to become teachers. The researcher is inviting male and female teachers in the southern feeder area of Cumberland County to participate in the study. This form is part of a process called "informed consent" to allow you to understand this study before deciding whether to take part.

This study is being conducted by a researcher named Sharon Russell Wilkins who is a doctoral student at Walden University. You may already know the researcher as a teacher at Gray's Creek High School, but this study is separate from that role.

Background Information:
The purpose of this study is to determine the factors that influence individuals to become teachers and to also determine if there are any differences in these factors between male and female teachers. Such information could lead to strengthened efforts in teacher recruitment.

Procedures:
If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete a brief survey via SurveyMonkey. Completing this survey should take about 10 minutes.

Here are some sample questions:
On a scale of 1-7, rate your agreement with the following statement: "I have had good teachers as role models."
On a scale of 1-7, rate your agreement with the following statement: "Teaching is a career suited to my abilities."

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
This study is voluntary. Everyone will respect your decision of whether or not you choose to be in the study. No one at your school or Cumberland County Schools will treat you differently if you decide not to be in the study. If you decide to join the study now, you can still change your mind later. You may stop at any time.

Risks and Benefits of Being in the Study:
Being in this study would not pose risk to your safety or wellbeing. The study would be beneficial to participants in the knowledge that they are contributing to further information regarding factors influencing individuals to become teachers, information that could possibly be used to strengthen teacher recruitment programs in North Carolina.

Privacy:
Any information you provide will be kept anonymous. No one, not even the researcher will know who participated in the study. The researcher will not use your personal information for any purposes outside of this research project. Also, the researcher will not include your name or anything else that could identify you in the study reports. Data will be kept secure by means of password protected online data storage by the

researcher. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Contacts and Questions:
You may ask any questions you have now. Or if you have questions later, you may contact the researcher via email at sharon.wilkins@waldenu.edu or sharonfinkler@ccs.k12.nc.us. If you want to talk privately about your rights as a participant, you can call Dr. Leilani Endicott. She is the Walden University representative who can discuss this with you. Her phone number is 612-312-1210. Walden University's approval number for this study is **IRB will enter approval number here** and it expires on **IRB will enter expiration date.**

Please print or save this consent form for your records.

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and I feel I understand the study well enough to make a decision about my involvement. By clicking the link below, I understand that I am agreeing to the terms described above. **A link to the online survey will be included here.**

Appendix D: Permission to Use Survey

Subject:	Re: FIT-Choice request
From:	Helen Watt (helen.watt@monash.edu)
To:	singingshari@yahoo.com;
Cc:	fitchoice@monash.edu;
Date:	Wednesday, January 26, 2011 6:23 PM

Dear Sharon,

thank you for your interest in our work. You are most welcome to use our FIT-Choice scale for your interesting project (attached in the format in which we administer it, for your convenience). The appropriate citations for referencing are:
- Watt & Richardson (2007) article in JXE for scale validation technical details
- Richardson & Watt (2006) article in APJTE for further information, including a handy Table which lists out items under constructs in easy to read format
Both articles are available for download at our website: www.fitchoice.org

As well, you may be interested to include our PECDA scale (Watt & Richardson, 2008, article in L&I, also available on website).

We would be very interested to learn from what you find, when you are ready to let us know, We are trying to keep in contact with everyone who is using our measures towards possible future comparative / collaborative work across different cultural contexts if this may be of interest in future.

best wishes, Helen & Paul.

On 27/01/2011 5:32 AM, Shari Wilkins wrote:
Dear Dr. Watt,

My name is Sharon Wilkins. I am a doctoral student and teacher in North Carolina. My research study will examine what influences men to enter or avoid the teaching profession. After much

reading, I believe your FIT-Choice scale will be the ideal instrument to measure such influences in my study. I write to request permission to use your FIT-Choice scale to help us gather information that can accurately inform local teacher recruitment and support initiatives.

I write to request a copy of the survey as well as any related information I may need in using it.

Thank you for considering my request. I greatly admire the work done by you and your team in developing this instrument.

Sharon Wilkins
Fayetteville, NC
910-723-7546 (cell)
singingshari@yahoo.com

--
Helen M. G. Watt, PhD
Associate Professor,

Appendix E:

Fayetteville, North Carolina 28302
910-678-2300
DR. FRANK TILL, SUPERINTENDENT

MACKY HALL SUSAN B. WILLIAMS

Date: April 4, 2014

To: Sharon Wilkins Finkler

From: Ron Phipps, Associate Superintendent
Evaluation and Testing

Study: *Examine factors that influence individuals to become teachers and determine any differences between males and females regarding those factors*

Your human subject research proposal has been reviewed by the Cumberland County Schools' Research Committee. Pending IRB approval, you are approved to conduct your research. Once the Research Committee receives your IRB approval, you will have full consent.

The Research Committee approved your request to conduct your research under the conditions that you comply with Cumberland County Policy 5230: ICC and Research Project Guidelines.

Please keep in mind that participation is voluntary and instructional time is not to be interrupted.

Congratulations and best wishes with your research project.

Sincerely,

Ron Phipps, Associate Superintendent
Evaluation and Testing

Appendix F: Reminder Letter

Dear Teacher,

I recently sent you information inviting you to participate in a survey designed to measure the factors that influence individuals to become teachers. I am a teacher at Gray's Creek High School, and this survey is part of my doctoral study at Walden University.

This reminder is being sent to everyone in the selected population. Since no personal data is retained with the surveys for reasons of confidentiality, we are unable to identify whether or not you have already completed the survey.

If you have completed the survey, I appreciate your cooperation. The information from this study will strengthen teacher recruitment and retention programs for Cumberland County. If you have not yet completed the survey, I would appreciate your time in doing so.

The link to the online survey was provided on the Consent Agreement attached to your original invitation to participate. If you need another copy of this agreement and a link to the survey, I will be happy to email these to you.

Thank you again for your time with this project and for the work you do every day for our students.

Most sincerely,
Sharon Wilkins Finkler
Doctoral Candidate
Walden University